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ABSTRACT

The materials in the manual are intended to provide the reader with a basic knowledge of the way work gets accomplished in organizations and with some basic tools useful for learning and teaching these concepts. The first section introduces the general nature of organizations and includes materials about the nature of groups and their place in organizations and the importance of such concepts as roles, control, authority, and power. The next section covers the major social-psychological aspect of organizational functioning as measured by the Navy Human Resource Management Survey. Subsections examine major organizational factors including command climate, supervisory leadership, peer leadership, and work group processes and also briefly describe the areas of integration of personnel and mission and satisfaction. The third major section is a presentation of the model of organizations used as a basis for the survey. Included is a description of relationships among the factors discussed in the first section. The final section provides exercises that have been found valuable for teaching and learning about the concepts described in earlier sections and includes examples of a few of these exercises. A 20-item annotated bibliography and items and indexes used in the survey are appended. (Author/PR)

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I. PREFACE

This manual was produced as a technical report in December 1974. It was prepared by: Jerome L. Franklin and Gregory J. Spencer, Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan. Research was supported by the Bureau of Naval Personnel and conducted under the Office of Naval Research Contract No. N00014-67-A-0181-0056. Reproduction in whole or in part is permitted for any purpose of the United States Government.

A major thrust of the Navy's Human Goals Program is to improve the way Navy personnel work together to accomplish their tasks. Basic to improving such interactions is an understanding of the way work is accomplished in organizations. Most people have some notions or ideas about the policies, behaviors, and attitudes that contribute to successful functioning. These ideas are usually based on accumulated experience and knowledge, and range from very simple beliefs such as "a firm supervisor gets results" to quite complex theories describing many separate aspects of organizational functioning and interactions among them. When these ideas are assembled in a coherent, meaningful way, they form a *model* of organizational functioning. When experience and research support such a model, it is said to be *valid*.

The establishment of a shared, valid model of organizational functioning is an important ingredient in efforts aimed at improving the way people work together. *Concepts Training* is a technique created by the Organizational Development Research Program at the Institute for Social Research to develop such a model among consultants and managers of organizations. This training includes coverage of such topics as roles, power, authority, control, participation, communication, leadership, motivation, group process, decision-making, and problem-solving. Although each concept is important in its own

right, it is also critical to understand relationships among them. Thus, Concepts Training focuses on these concepts as they fit into a model describing such relationships.

On the basis of a valid model, goals or desired future states can be defined and accepted by consultants and members of the organization. Comparisons of the actual state of the organization with the desired states reveal discrepancies or gaps which identify areas in need of improvement. A development approach taking account of a valid model and focusing on such discrepancies is called *Survey-Guided Development.*[1]

This manual contains six major sections. Following the Preface, Section Two serves to introduce the general nature of organizations. It includes materials about the nature of groups and their place in organizations and the importance of such concepts as roles, control, authority, and power. Section Three covers the major social-psychological aspects of organizational functioning as measured by the Navy Human Resource Management Survey. Subsections examine major organizational factors including Command Climate, Supervisory Leadership, Peer Leadership, and Work Group Processes. Also included in Section Three are subsections briefly describing the areas of Integration of Personnel and Mission and Satisfaction. Each subsection contains a description of the indices falling within that factor or area. For each index, the questions from the survey used to measure that concept are presented together with a description of the concept itself.[2] Section

[1] An in-depth discussion of organizational development through Survey-Guided Development appears in *Survey-Guided Development: A Consultant Manual for Human Resource Management Specialists* (NAVPERS 15264

[2] Descriptions of the component items and indices used in this manual are based on recommendations from the Survey Conference, Human Resources Management Center, San Diego, California, 10 - 13 September 1974.

Four is a presentation of the model of organizations used as a basis for the survey. Included is a description of relationships among the factors discussed in the second section. Section Five references exercises that have been found to be valuable for teaching and learning about the concepts described in the other sections and includes examples of a few of these exercises. Section Six includes annotated and non-annotated references useful for a more complete evaluation of the concepts presented in this manual. This manual concludes with two Appendices presenting all items from the Navy Human Resource Management Survey. Appendix A includes the items and indices discusses in Section Three. Appendix B contains items and indices from the survey not discussed in Section Three of this manual.

Taken together, the materials in these sections are intended to provide the reader with a basic knowledge of the way work gets accomplished in organizations and some basic tools useful for learning and teaching these concepts. With this knowledge as a base, it is possible to begin improving the way organizations function.

Recommendations are invited for the improvement of content, format or any other aspect of the manual. Any recommendations should be submitted to Commanding Officer, Human Resource Management School prior to 1 November who will consolidate recommended changes for approval by the Human Goals program sponsor. Revisions or annual changes will normally be published in June.

Human Resource Management Centers and Detachments may order additional copies by letter request from Commanding Officer, Human Resource Management School, Naval Air Station, Memphis, Millington, TN 38054.

II. INTRODUCTION

II-A. Overview of Organizations

Initial Discussion Questions:[3]

1. What are the major characteristics of an organization of which you are a member? That is, how would you describe that organization to someone else if you wanted them to have an idea of what the organization was like?
2. In your Navy organization (i.e., command or unit), to how many groups do you belong?
3. What types of responsibility do you have to others in your organization?
4. What does your organizational structure look like and where do you fit into it?

---

[3] Questions like these will appear throughout this manual at the beginning of major sections. They are provided to help you begin thinking about organizations and how they function. If you are going through this manual with other people, discuss these questions in the group, and have someone write comments where they can be seen by everyone. If you are approaching these materials individually, go through each question by yourself, writing down your thoughts on a separate sheet of paper. After finishing a major section, you may benefit from returning to these questions to see if your responses have changed.

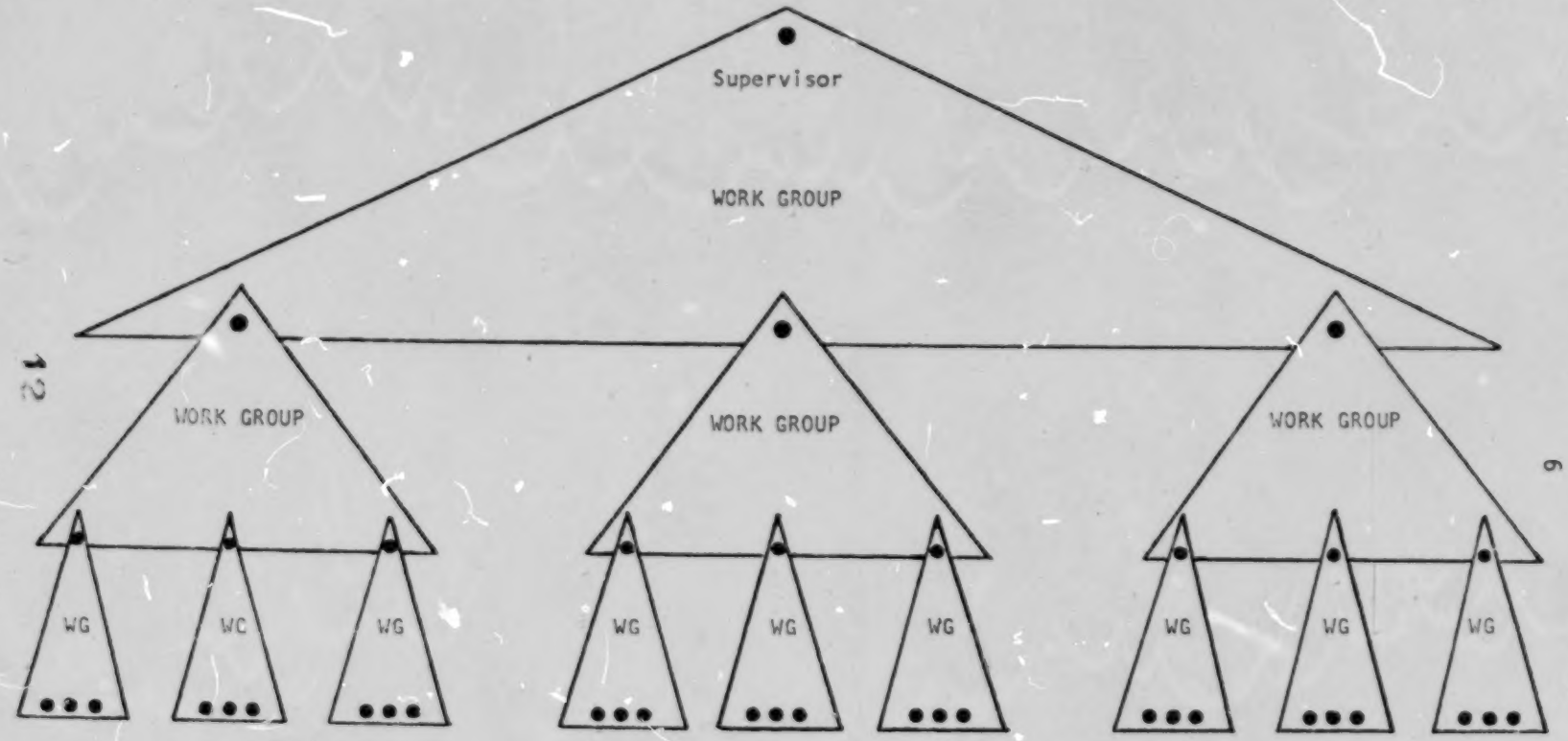
Organizations such as those which make up the Navy can be described in many ways. Among the elements most commonly used for such descriptions are reporting relationships, tasks, functional positions, and physical assets. Although each of these elements is important and descriptions including them are useful, in the most basic sense organizations are best described in terms of the interactions among their members. It is these interactions which establish the form and procedures of the organization.

The organizational unit most basic for these interactions is the *work group*--i.e., a supervisor and all those persons reporting directly to him. Figure 1 shows one way of describing an organization focusing on the work group as a basic component. In this figure each work group is represented by a triangle. Within each triangle are dots representing group members. At the apex of each triangle we find the group leader or supervisor. The remaining members are peers reporting to the same supervisor.

As we see in Figure 1, the work groups are overlapping. This indicates that above the very bottom, and below the very top, most persons are members of at least two groups simultaneously; they are subordinates in the group above and superiors in the group below. This dual membership serves the purpose of *linkage*, of knitting the organization together. This structure of interlocking groups provides the mechanism for coordinating activities across functional areas and for transmitting information up and down levels of hierarchy. In part the effectiveness of organizational functioning is dependent on how well this linking function serves to integrate different functional areas and levels within the organization.

Figure 1

WORK GROUPS FORMING AN ORGANIZATION



Interactions among work group members are influenced by many organizational conditions, practices, and policies which are collectively referred to in Navy organizations as *Command Climate*. Command Climate results largely from the policies and practices emerging from other groups in the organization. The groups creating the Command Climate are usually at levels in the hierarchy above the group in question. And, as illustrated by the shading in Figure 2, Command Climate becomes more constraining as one moves down the hierarchy. These conditions greatly affect the range and form of behaviors possible for group members. Depending on the nature of the conditions, they may affect work group and organizational performance for good or ill.

Behaviors describing the interactions among group members take many forms. Three major dimensions of such behaviors have been identified in the Navy. These are *Supervisory Leadership*, *Peer Leadership*, and *Work Group Processes*. Each of these categories consists of several component elements.

The Supervisory Leadership dimension includes behaviors of supervisors toward their subordinates. Figure 3 illustrates the direction of these actions. The leadership behaviors of the supervisor may serve to help or hinder the efforts of group members in their attempts to accomplish their tasks by providing or not providing the types of relationships, stimulation, and situation conducive to effective functioning. For example, a supervisor may encourage his subordinates to work together helping each other share resources and

Figure 2

COMMAND CLIMATE AT DIFFERENT ORGANIZATIONAL LEVELS

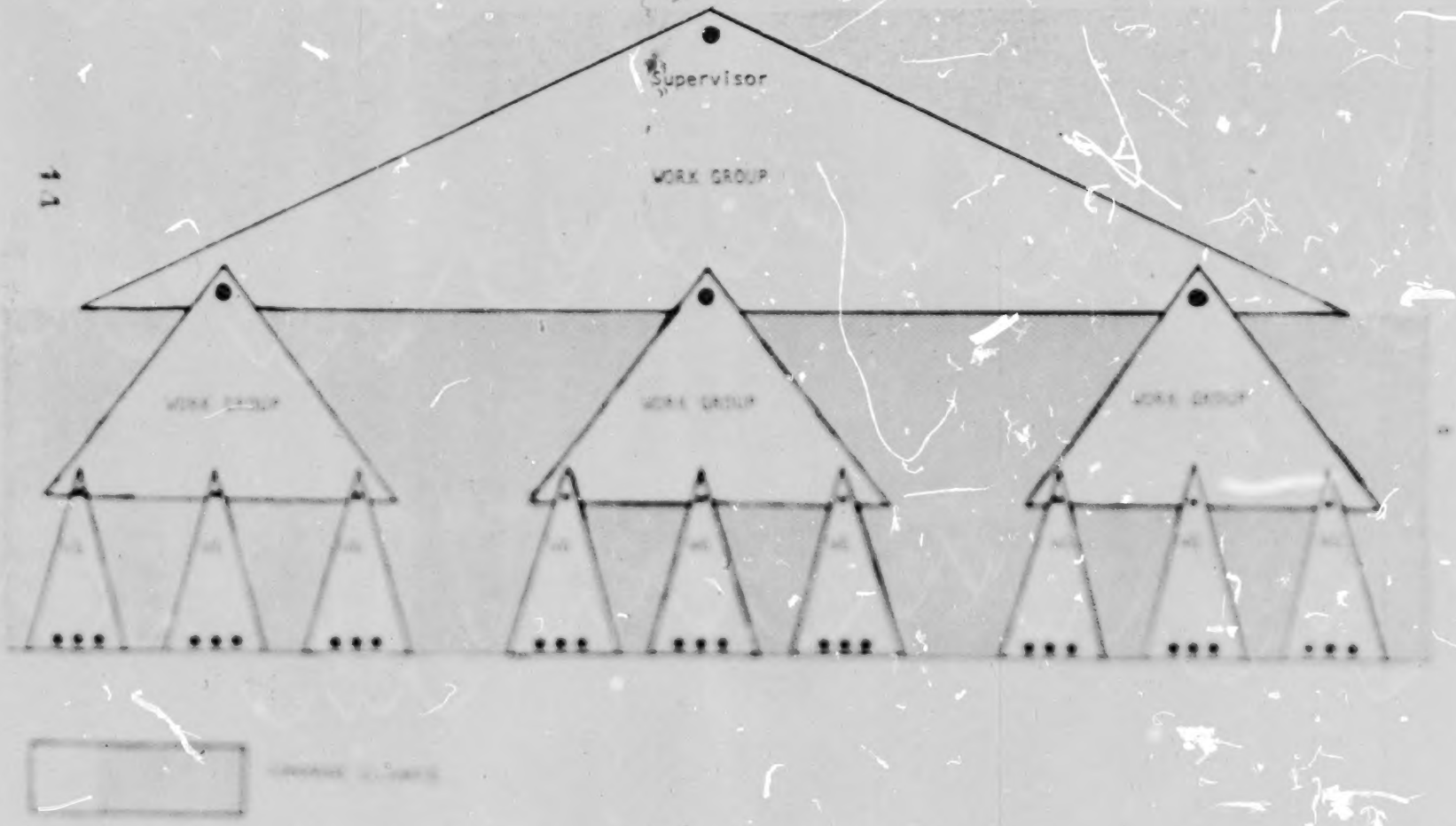
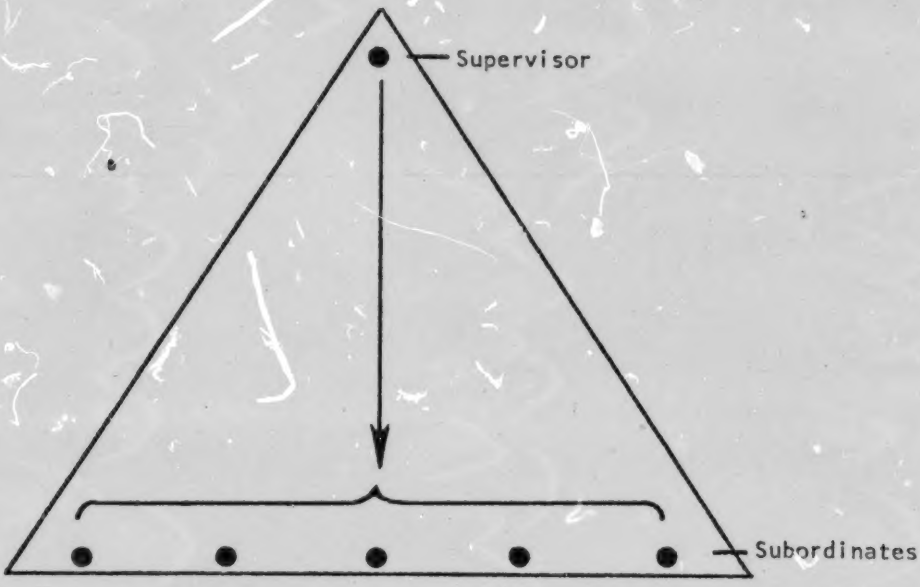


Figure 3

SUPERVISORY LEADERSHIP

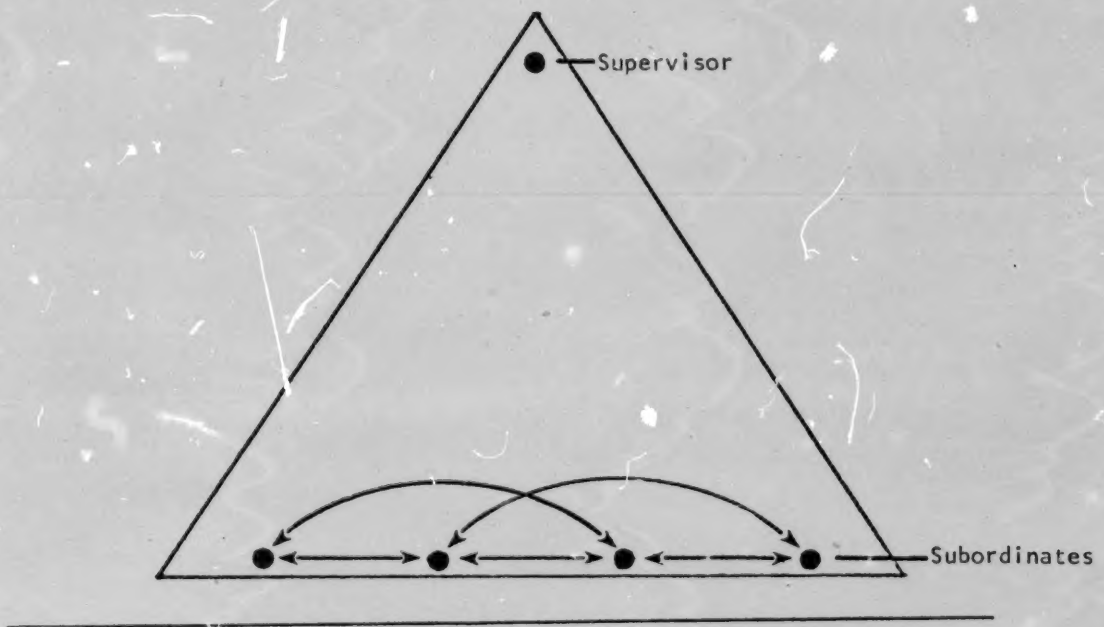


accomplish group goals. Behavior of this nature has been found to both motivate good work and to result in high levels of group accomplishment. However, quite the opposite result would be expected in a group where the supervisor's behavior encourages group members to withhold resources in a competition against one another. In the latter case the result would be less motivation and ultimately a less productive group.

Just as the supervisor can stimulate or restrict productivity through his leadership behaviors, peers in a group can similarly affect the group's functioning through leadership behaviors they exhibit toward

Figure 4

PEER LEADERSHIP

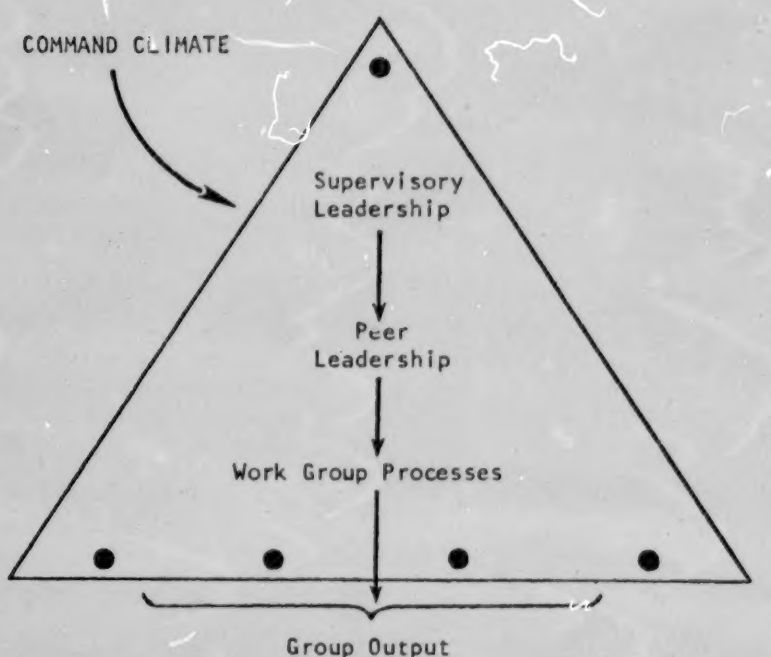


one another. Figure 4 illustrates these interactions. Positive Peer Leadership behaviors can motivate performance that is high both in quantity and quality. Conversely, behaviors which do not encourage supportive relationships or an emphasis on doing the best job possible will result in low productivity and poor quality. Interestingly, research has shown that the nature of peer leadership behaviors are determined in part both by the conditions, practices, and policies forming the Command Climate and the leadership behaviors exhibited by the supervisor of the work group. Thus, knowledge of the nature of the Command Climate together with an understanding of the group supervisor's behaviors will provide an indication of peer leadership behaviors.

The direct results of the Command Climate and Peer Leadership behaviors are described as Work Group Processes. These are intermediate level outcomes of each work group. Included are areas of group processes related to planning and making good decisions, the group's ability to accomplish tasks both of a routine nature and in unusual circumstances, and the maintenance of standards of etiquette and discipline within the group. A direct result of these Work Group Processes is what is usually referred to as the group's productivity or final output. This is shown in Figure 5. For groups at upper levels of the hierarchy this final output takes the form of general policies

Figure 5

WORK GROUP FUNCTIONING

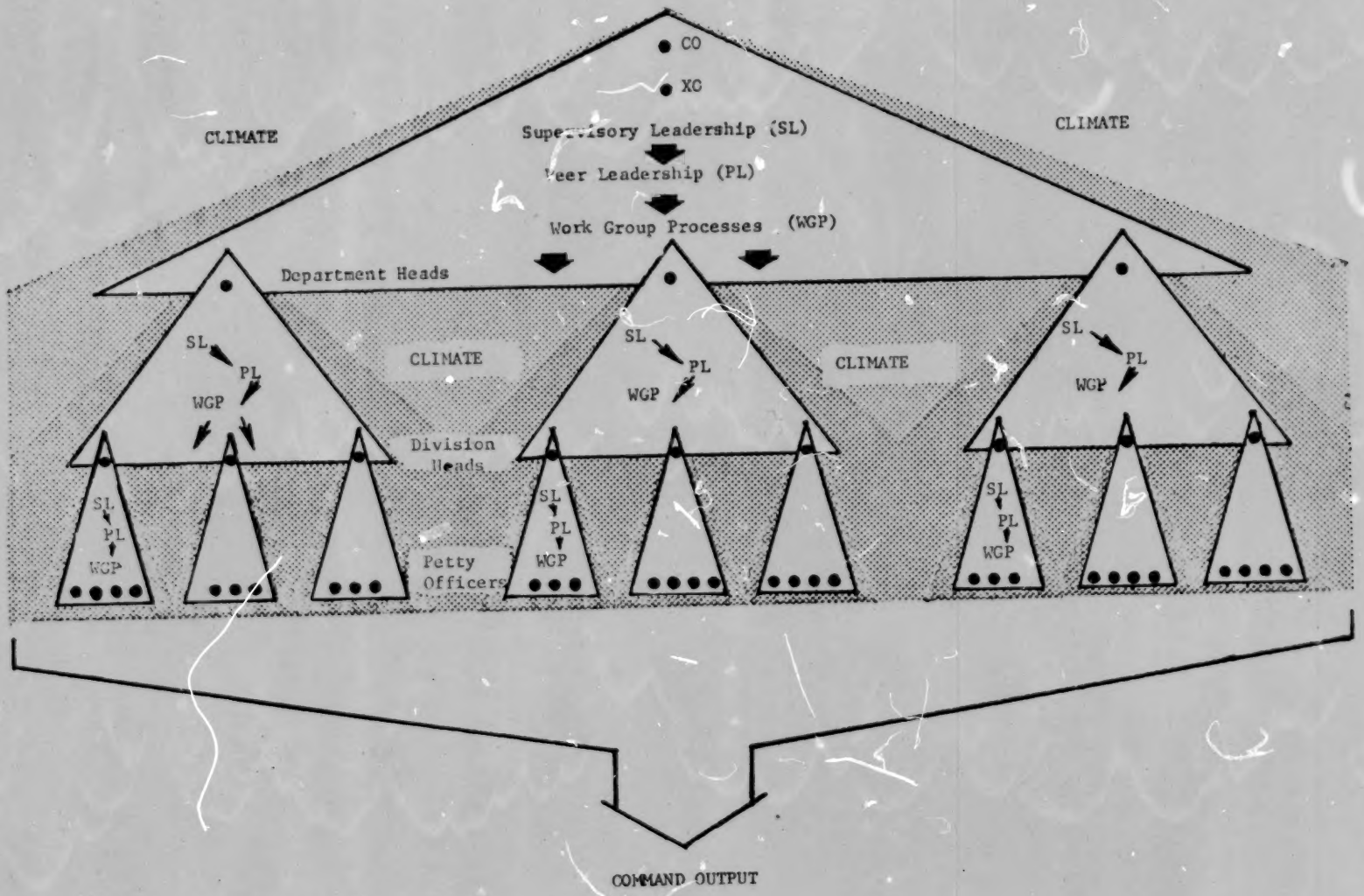


and procedures encompassing the whole organization and considering periods of time well into the future. At intermediate levels this output is not as broad in its focus and takes account of shorter periods of time. At the lowest organizational levels the output is more closely tied to the day-to-day necessities of producing a product or providing a service. For example, an important output for Navy groups is their state of combat readiness. This is accomplished to the extent that policies and procedures are formulated and supported at upper and intermediate levels in the organization and the actual behaviors defining combat readiness can be demonstrated by persons at lower levels.

Figure 6 combines many of the ideas presented thus far, and shows that the output of the total organization is related to the outputs of each group within the organization. Often, this organizational output is seen as the sum of outputs from groups at the lowest level. A more realistic view must take account of how behaviors at each level of an organization's hierarchy affect the total output of the system. Only through detailed understanding of how individuals and groups work to accomplish tasks and goals can progress be made toward improving organizational functioning and the quality and level of outputs.

Figure 6

ORGANIZATIONAL FUNCTIONING AND OUTPUT



II-B. Groups in Organizations

Initial Discussion Questions:

1. Why are groups formed in organizations?
2. To what kinds of groups do you belong?
3. What advantages do groups provide for their members? What are the disadvantages of group membership?
4. What are the advantages and disadvantages of groups for an organization?

As noted above, the basic building block of organizations is the work group. Given any large collection of people, groups of some sort will inevitably emerge. In some cases groups form primarily because individuals can accomplish their goals better if they work together. These are often referred to as task or *work groups*. In other cases the fulfillment of social needs is the primary motivator for the formation of groups. Groups formed on this basis are usually called *social groups*. In organizations groups form naturally because of task requirements and in many cases social needs are fulfilled through membership in these same work groups. Although individuals usually are members of many social groups in addition to their work group, it is the work group that is of primary concern in understanding how organizations function.

Once groups are formed, group pressure and *cohesiveness* help to maintain their existence. In return for the benefits of joining a group, an individual must give up some of his or her individuality and conform to group norms. Norms are established ways of doing things. Members who do not conform to the group's norms face disapproval, ostracism, or expulsion from the group. Conformity to group norms and goals results in acceptance and support for the group member.

Cohesiveness is a concept which refers to this "stick-together" quality of a group. A highly cohesive group which agrees with the goals of the organization will be a strong positive resource. A highly cohesive group which does not agree with organizational goals will result in group behavior (performance) that is detrimental to the organization.

All work groups are characterized by the same basic processes which result in good or poor functioning. These processes describe how the individual group members relate to each other and to the work. Thus, we would expect a group that has good group processes to also have good communication and leadership as well. Cohesiveness is also an important factor in group processes, resulting in such characteristics as a shared confidence and trust in group members and a shared desire to meet group objectives successfully.

Based on the group's position in the hierarchy of the organization these processes might take on different forms and result in different outputs. For example, as was noted previously, the decisions and policies of the groups near the top of the organizational pyramid have a large influence on the working conditions of those groups lower in the pyramid where those decisions and policies are interpreted as rules and instructions.

II-C. Individuals in Organizations

Initial discussion questions:

Think about the Navy organization to which you belong--your unit or command.

1. How do you know what you should do in your job?
2. Who indicates what is expected of you on your job?
3. Why do you obey the rules and policies of this organization?
4. Why do you obey your supervisors? Why do your subordinates follow your direction?

Most people are members of many organizations. In fact, much of our behavior occurs in relationship to some organizational framework (e.g., family, work, religious, political, civic, fraternal). To some of these organizations, we contribute a great deal of time and energy. In others, our participation is minimal, limited to an occasional meeting or activity. Whether involvement is little or intense, certain basic concepts are helpful in understanding how people relate to organizations. Four of these concepts will be discussed in this section: *roles*, *control*, *authority* and *power*.

Each of these basic concepts helps to explain the "process of organizing" which is constantly occurring in any organization. In fact, one definition of organization is simply the existence of order and predictability. Organizing refers to this process of introducing order and predictability into an otherwise chaotic or random situation. If tasks and goals are to be accomplished by individuals or groups, then organizations must provide ways of increasing cooperation, coordination, and common expectations.

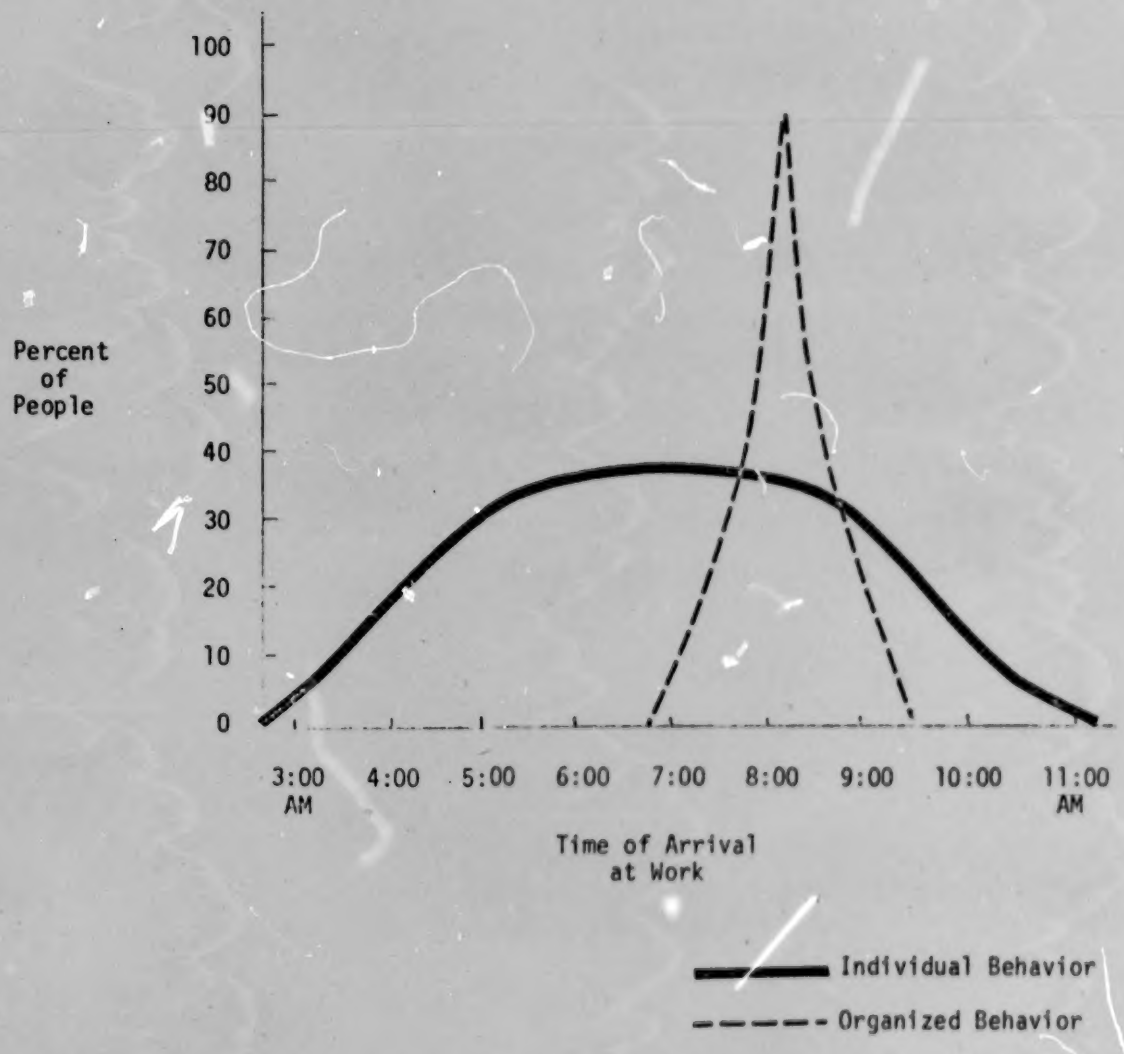
Figure 7 presents an illustration of this idea of organization. In this figure the solid line represents the times of the day that individuals might arrive at their place of work if allowed to make this decision as individuals--without considering the needs of others. The dotted line represents the results of "organizing" based on the need for people to work together. As can be seen, individual behavior varies greatly, with some people starting very early in the morning and others beginning much later. However, organized behavior leads to increased predictability so that everyone knows when most people will be arriving for work. In other words, individuals give up some of their individual behavior in order to accomplish organizational objectives and receive individual benefits from participating in the organization. This process of organizing involves each of the four basic concepts described in this section. They will now be explored in relationship to the issue of establishing order and predictability--an important part of our model of organizational functioning.

II-C-1. Organizational Roles

Role refers to the set of *expected behavior patterns* attributed to a particular position or billet in an organization. Every position has such a set of expected behaviors associated with it. The sources of these expectations are many and varied. Some are quite formal and stable, others are less formal and subject to frequent flucuation. The more formal and generally more stable expectations include those established by general organizational policies and described in formal documents.

Figure 7

Example of Increased Predictability in Organizational Settings[a]



[a]Adapted from Tannenbaum, A.S. Social Psychology of the Work Organization. Belmont, Calif.: Wadsworth, 1966

Written job descriptions provide examples of these more formal expectations. Less formal expectations come from individuals having contact with the person in the role. Thus, supervisors and peers also have expectations but these are subject to greater variation based on characteristics of the particular supervisor or peer and the person in the position. In addition, different supervisors or peers may have quite different expectations for the person filling a position in an organization.

Various aspects of the role also may be specific to a particular position or generally applicable to most or all positions within the organization. For example, a general expectation in the Navy is that all members of that organization obey orders from their superiors. However, the position held by an individual determines who is considered a superior and, therefore, whose orders must be obeyed.

An understanding of organizational roles requires a consideration of both the role that is *sent* and the role that is *received*. The sent role consists of all those expectations transmitted to the person in a position. These expectations include written and spoken messages as well as non-verbal messages transmitted between the senders and receiver. The sent role may originate from several sources including all those individuals (superiors, peers, subordinates) with whom the person in the organizational position interacts.

The received role does not always correspond exactly with the sent role. Often, the individual in the position interprets the sent role differently from the intent of the senders. The degree of correspondence

between the sent role and the received role is related to properties of the sender, properties of the receiver, the substantive content of the message, the clarity of the message, and a variety of other factors comprising the communication process. Thus, a supervisor may be trying to indicate quite specific behaviors he requires of his subordinates but, due to the superior's lack of skill in communicating these expectations, the subordinates do not fulfill the expected behavior patterns because they do not understand what is expected.

As the above suggests, organizational roles may be seen differently by different persons occupying a position in an organization or interacting with persons in a position. In fact, many sources of the dysfunctional stress experienced by individuals in organizations result from problems of role definition. There are several sources of problems in role definition. One referred to as *role ambiguity* is a lack of definition regarding what behaviors are expected of a person in a particular position. In these cases the occupant of the position does not receive sufficient expectations from others to provide guidance in accomplishing work. In many cases this lack of direction causes uncertainty and stress.

A second major problem originates from expectations which require more behavior from the occupant of the position than the individual can perform. This can be described as *role overload*. A supervisor who demands "the impossible" either in quality or quantity of work required is placing subordinates in a position of role overload often resulting in stress.

A third and somewhat more complex source of role stress results from conflicts in the expectations received by the occupant of a particular organizational position. *Role conflict* takes a variety of forms but three major types are commonly identified:

1. *Person-role conflict* results from role requirements being incompatible with the values, needs, or capabilities of the person in the position. Such conflict would be experienced by an individual in a position requiring him to treat others as interchangeable parts of a machine when his own values held that each individual was an important entity in himself. Another situation leading to such conflict would be one in which the occupant of a position perceived behavior expectations beyond what he thought his level of skill or knowledge allowed him to perform.
2. *Intra-sender conflict* results from the reception of incompatible expectations from the same role sender. Thus, a supervisor may stress the importance of following rules to the letter but may also expect behaviors which are defined as outside of the rules. This leaves the position occupant in a state of role stress due to conflicting and incompatible expectations from the same role sender.

3. *Inter-sender conflict* is the result of receiving incompatible expectations from two or more different senders. Such incompatible expectations can be received from combinations of several sources including formal documents, supervisors, peers, and subordinates. As an example, peers of supervisors often have different expectations of each other regarding behavior toward subordinates. Some feel supervisors' behavior should indicate a substantial degree of distance between supervisors and subordinates while others expect the establishment of close relationships between supervisors and subordinates. A role occupant receiving both types of expectations may well experience role conflict and stress.

As we have seen, roles are expected behavior patterns attributed to organizational positions. There are many sources of these expectations including written documents and the behaviors of and verbal interactions with other organizational members. When these expectations are unclear, unmeetable, or conflictual they lead to role conflict and stress. Since this stress often proves dysfunctional both for the role occupant and the organization, it is important that it be minimized. When roles are clear and realistic, they provide a helpful framework for effective task performance and for interactions among members of an organization.

II-C-2. Control, Authority, and Power

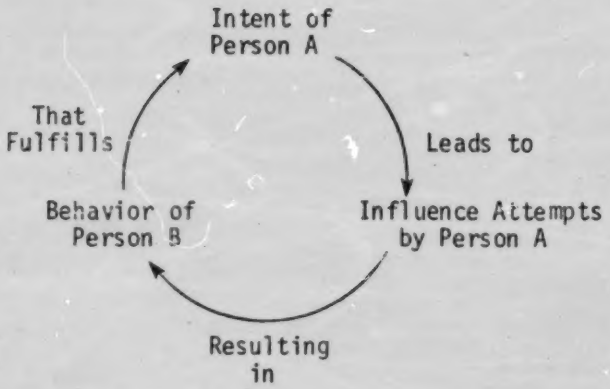
Initial Discussion Questions:

1. Who in your Navy organization has the ability to influence your behavior?
2. Why do you accept orders from others?
3. Whose behavior do you influence in your organization?
4. Why do others do as you wish?

Control means the *actual ability to determine outcomes*. The concept of control is central to any exchange between individuals and organizations. It is through the exertion of control or influence that conformance to organizational requirements is accomplished. In its simplest form, the control process can be described as a cycle of events (See Figure 8):

Figure 8

CONTROL PROCESS



In this figure we see that the intent of Person A leads to an influence attempt by Person A resulting in the behavior of Person B that fulfills the intent of Person A. There are many considerations that affect the control process, such as the assumptions and values of the persons involved and the means by which A attempts to influence B. These considerations become clearer with an understanding of the concepts of *authority* and *power*.

Authority refers to the *assigned right to determine outcomes*. An organization is a set of interacting, influencing roles. As was discussed earlier, each role is a set of expectations concerning behaviors to be performed and behaviors to be avoided. In order for these behaviors to be coordinated and consistent with organizational requirements and objectives, a specialized position is created. That is, the position of the supervisor or leader is created by making the acceptance of influence in certain matters part of one position (i.e., group members or subordinates) and the exertion of such influence part of another position (i.e., supervisors). To help the leader exert influence and set the standards for acceptable and unacceptable behavior, he is given authority by the organization. This authority is implemented through a hierarchy, or chain of command, so that the higher one goes in the organization, the more responsible they are for ensuring that the people below do what they are supposed to do. This authority is supported by the use of power, usually in the areas of giving punishment and providing rewards.

Power is the *potential ability to determine outcomes*. It is through the availability of power (not necessarily exercised) over things that are important to people that individuals accept the influence attempts of

others. Five types of power have been identified as the bases for social influence.[4] In other words, an individual accepts the influence of another person (the use of control) because he or she feels the person who is attempting to exert the influence has one of the following:

1. *Reward Power:* This power is based on the perception that the person trying to influence has the ability to reward the person being influenced. The strength of reward power is determined by the magnitude of the perceived rewards available. An example is when subordinates react to influence attempts of a superior because they feel the supervisor will provide benefits (raises, promotions, better working conditions, etc.) for them as a result of their adherence to the supervisor's influence attempt.
2. *Coercive Power:* The perception of possible punishment is the primary factor in this form of power. Coercive power originates from the perception on the part of an individual that failure to comply with an influence attempt by another individual will lead to some form of punishment. This may be actual punishment (e.g., demotion, assigning unpleasant tasks) or simply a withholding of rewards (e.g., no promotion, not being assigned pleasant tasks).

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[4] These were identified by J.R.P. French, Jr., and B. Raven and appear in *Studies of Social Power*, D. Cartwright (ed.), Ann Arbor, Michigan: Institute for Social Research, 1959; and, in Cartwright, D. and Zander, A. *Group Dynamics: Research and Theory*. New York: Harper and Row, 1968.

3. *Legitimate Power:* This base refers to the "assigned right" to determine behavior. In this form influence attempts are complied with because the originator is seen as someone who should be able to determine behaviors because of a norm that has been established. Another way of saying this is that the individual's role includes expectations about compliance from certain others.

4. *Referent Power:* Referent power is based on an identification by the person who is the target of the influence attempt with the person who is trying to exert influence. Thus, if person B in Figure 8 likes and wants to be associated with person A, referent power can be used as the basis for attempts to shape behavior. One example of this is the use of heroes (e.g., sports figures, astronauts, etc.) in advertising. The idea is that they will have greater influence over consumers because they are seen as attractive persons with whom to be identified.

5. *Expert Power:* This power exists to the extent that the person being influenced feels the other person has knowledge. Thus, the target person's behavior is influenced because he or she perceives that the influencer "knows what he or she is talking about."

In examining various bases of power it is critical to remember that the base is determined by the *perceptions* of the person who is the target of the influence attempt. Thus, even if the attempt is from someone who

actually has no ability to reward, the base is still reward power if the target person *thinks* the ability to reward exists.

It also should be clear that two or more bases of power may exist at the same time. Thus, a person may be seen as having two, three, four, or all five bases. In fact, the first three types of power are often provided to a supervisor by virtue of his or her position or role in the organization. However, the organization cannot automatically provide the last two types of power. Referent power and expert power must be acquired by each individual. When they are acquired, they provide an increment of power over and above that given by the organization. Research has shown that, of the five types of power, referent and expert power relate positively to both the satisfaction and performance of organizational members. The other types of power usually either are not associated at all or are associated negatively with satisfaction and performance (see Table 1). For example, if subordinates accept the influence attempts of their supervisor (do what he wants in areas relating to the job) because they identify with him and like him, and because they think he knows what he is talking about, then performance and satisfaction are typically higher than if they obey him out of fear, because they are "supposed to", or because of potential rewards.

There is an opinion, widely held by many persons in the management ranks, that giving influence to one's subordinates diminishes one's own influence. In this commonly held opinion, the influence pie is of a fixed size, and giving control to one person reduces the amount available to another. In fact, however, research shows that a quite different pattern exists. The influence pie can grow larger or smaller depending

Table 1

ASSOCIATIONS BETWEEN BASES OF POWER

AND SATISFACTION AND PERFORMANCE

Bases of Power[a]	Association with Satisfaction[b]	Association with Performance[b]
Legitimate	0	0
Expert	+	+
Reward	-	0
Referent	+	+
Coercive	-	0

[a]French, John, R.P. and Raven, B. "The bases of social power," in D. Cartwright and A. Zander (eds.), *Group Dynamics*, Evanston, Ill.: Row, Peterson and Co., 1960.

[b]Bowers, D.G., Bachman, J.G. and Marcus, P.M. "Bases of supervisory power: A comparative study in five organizational settings." Paper read at American Psychological Association Convention, September, 1965.

upon the amount of control that each member in the organization has. When all persons in a group or organization feel responsible for its success and have an ability to influence events, success is more likely than when the reverse exists. Effective organizations are, as systems, characterized by a presence of greater *total control* than are ineffective systems. Persons at all levels of high performing organizations feel that they have, and do have, more say or influence over what goes on in their departments or units than do persons at those same levels in organizations which perform poorly. Fewer things are likely to be left to chance, fewer critical factors are likely to be overlooked, and fewer sudden errors are likely to go unchecked when members at all levels feel responsible and have an ability to do something about such things, i.e., influence them.

III. MAJOR ORGANIZATIONAL DIMENSIONS FROM THE NAVY HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT SURVEY

III-A. Command Climate

Initial Discussion Questions:

1. How do the policies of your command reflect a concern for people as valuable resources?
2. Why do you work hard or not work hard to accomplish your tasks?
3. Do persons making decisions affecting your command have adequate information to make good decisions?
4. Where do communication blockages exist within your command?

There are many factors influencing the behaviors of individuals and groups within organizations. Some of these are attributes of organizational members which are characteristics of the individuals themselves. Examples of these factors include levels of knowledge, values, and skills. To some extent each of these determines how individuals and groups function in performing tasks. However, individuals and groups do not function in a vacuum. They are part of the larger organization and are governed and influenced by the procedures, policies, and practices of the organization.

These organizational determinants of individual and group behavior in the Navy are called *Command Climate*. As noted earlier, Command Climate refers to those conditions created for a work group by other work groups, especially those above in the hierarchy. These conditions provide forces that shape what is done in a work group. The conditions are "facts of life" providing the environment within which the group must operate. As such, they may help or hinder group members in their attempts to accomplish their goals.

In the Navy five major separate aspects of Command Climate have been identified through theoretical and empirical analyses. These include (1) *Human Resource Emphasis*, (2) *Communication Flow*, (3) *Decision-Making Practices*, (4) *Motivational Conditions*, and (5) *Lower-Level Influence*. Although each of these is part of Command Climate, they represent distinct aspects of the situation. Further, each aspect includes specific components measured by separate questions on the Navy Human Resource Management Survey.

III-A-1. Human Resource Emphasis

Questions from the Navy Human Resource Management Survey used to measure Human Resource Emphasis:[5]

10. To what extent does this command have a real interest in the welfare and morale of assigned personnel?

11. To what extent are work activities sensibly organized in this command?

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[5] Each section describing a major area measured by items from the Navy Human Resource Management Survey will be introduced with the items. They can be used as a basis for self examination and discussion in the same manner as the "Initial Discussion Questions." The numbers before these items correspond to item numbers on the survey.

12. This command has clear-cut reasonable goals and objectives that contribute to its mission.
13. I feel that the workload and time factors are adequately considered in planning our work group assignments.

Organizational policies and practices provide substantial clues about the importance attributed to people in organizations. In some organizations people feel as though they are interchangeable pegs to be moved about from place to place with little regard either for their needs or talents. Work in this type of organization often seems to be poorly organized and unplanned and the goals tend to be unclear. In general, things seem disorganized and the human resources are misused and wasted. This exemplifies an organization low in the area of Human Resource Emphasis.

In other organizations the members feel important and decisions seem to be made with their interests in mind. Work is organized such that human resources are well used, goals are reasonable, and command accomplishments are viewed as meaningful and positively affecting the larger organization. Such a command would be considered high in Human Resource Emphasis.

As might be expected, in Navy commands where Human Resource Emphasis is rated as high, the feelings toward the organization are more positive than where it is rated low. In fact, it has been found that there is a strong positive relationship between this aspect of Command Climate and the expressed intention of Navy persons to reenlist. It is also quite probable that Human Resource Emphasis is associated with both overall satisfaction with the Navy and motivation to perform one's job well.

III-A-2. Communication

Questions from the Navy Human Resource Management Survey used to measure Communication Flow:

1. Is the amount of information you get about what is going on in other departments or watch sections adequate to meet your needs?
2. To what extent are you told what you need to know to do your job in the best possible way?
3. How receptive are those above you to your ideas and suggestions?

The term communication implies information in motion, a process rather than a static situation. This process contains several dimensions or steps which can be listed in five simple descriptive statements.

1. A source (sender) generates information.
2. This information is transmitted to a receiver.
3. The receiver either receives the information or not.
4. The receiver either comprehends the information or not.
5. The receiver either accepts or rejects the information.

The communication process usually occurs at two levels, especially if the transmission is verbal (spoken). One level is more cognitive in nature and refers to the actual topic or message being transmitted. The other level is more emotional and refers to the attitudes or feelings that also usually accompany the message. Often, this emotional level consists of non-verbal cues such as posture, facial expressions,

fidgeting and other gestures. The tone of voice and speed of talking are other examples of communication at this level.

If the words being transmitted are emotional words and the facial expression and tone of voice are agitated, the information being transmitted would probably seem consistent and compatible at both levels--increasing the likelihood of comprehension by the receiver. If, however, the communication at the cognitive level is saying that everything is fine, yet the emotional level communicates anger and frustration, the information being transmitted is ambiguous and mixed, complicating comprehension.

Thus, although the communication process can be described using simple statements, the fact that communication can occur at different levels suggests potential complications. Communications involve many such complications because of the variety of things that affect and relate to it.

Nearly all communication occurs within a framework of social organization. Organizations have rules or norms about who talks with whom (communication networks) and about the acceptable content areas. For example, most organizations have rules concerning who can talk with the leader and what they can talk about. "Chain of command", "proper channels", and "going over my head" are all sayings which describe the existence of these rules. The secrecy of salaries, evaluations, appraisals, and potential promotions are examples of content areas often not discussed freely in organizations.

The nature of an organization, including its rules and norms, has implications for how communication takes place. The term *process* is often used in reference to the manner in which communication happens. The process focus is on who talks, how much individuals talk, who talks to whom, who interrupts whom, who asks questions, who gives answers, who encourages participation, who smooths over disagreements, and a range of other issues of this type.

As previously noted, organizations have a formal structure represented by groups arranged in hierarchical levels. Organizations also have a communication structure or network, usually consistent with the reporting relationships found in the formal structure. The shape of the communication network has implications for message accuracy and frequency as well as member satisfaction. Some networks are free-flowing both up and down the formal structure of the system. Other networks are more unidimensional (downward) and restricted. Some networks result in communication overload while others result in communication isolation for parts of the organization.

Based on studies examining patterns of communication flow in relationship to performance, some conclusions seem evident. Increasing the free flow of communication tends to improve the transfer of information, which in turn improves performance. Many organizations overcome the downward-only emphasis of formal communication through effective informal systems such as the "grapevine". The downward flow of policies and decisions would be balanced by the upward flow of informal word-of-mouth

feedback and more formalized feedback systems. Lateral communication (across groups and departments) is also very important for coordination and adaptation within an organization and needs to be encouraged.

One way to increase lateral and upward communication is through the use of *two-way communication*. Two-way communication (information flowing in both directions) is usually more effective than one-way communication, increasing not only the accuracy of the messages being transmitted but also the satisfaction and degree of understanding achieved by the recipient. Most organizational members need to better learn when two-way communication is appropriate and how it is used. Two-way communication is especially helpful when giving instructions, directions, or other information that is new, complex, or potentially confusing. By checking for comprehension and seeking feedback, the likelihood of a correct interpretation of information is greatly increased. If the information to be transmitted is standardized, routine, or very familiar, two-way communication is less appropriate.

Since communication by nature occurs in social settings, the concepts of *role* and *status* also add complexity to the communication process. One of the most important influences of status on communication is represented by the superior-subordinate relationship. Typically, subordinates pay more attention to communication from superiors, facilitating downward communication flow. Conversely, superiors value least the communication they receive from subordinates, often giving either verbal or non-verbal cues as to how busy and unapproachable they are. Subordinates not being reinforced or rewarded for interactions with their superiors is one of the

major hinderances to upward communication flow and requires skillful behavior on the part of leaders to overcome this natural tendency.

Other aspects of the superior-subordinate relationship also inhibit the free flow of information. Evaluation and appraisal are inherent in this type of interaction which tends to increase the screening and restricting of communication. Subordinates will be hesitant to share information about mistakes or shortcomings, or even to ask questions about potential problem areas, if such communication will affect potential rewards administered by their superiors. For effective communication to occur in such relationships, leaders must possess and use communication skills in areas such as listening, speaking, setting expectations, reducing ambiguity, giving feedback, and teaching.

There are other important influences on the communication process. For example, the technical (telephones, loud speakers, duplicating, etc.) and the physical (meeting rooms, informal coffee shops, private offices, etc.) facilities can either hinder or help the flow of information. The attitudes of the sender and receiver of communication also influence communication by affecting the total amount of information available and the amount of distortion that occurs. Unfavorable attitudes can create communication blockages either in the transmission or the acceptance of information. Finally, the leadership and group practices of the members of an organization can influence communication. Participative leadership tends to increase group cohesiveness throughout the organization and tends to improve the upward, downward, and lateral flow of information.

III-A-3. Decision-Making Practices

Questions from the Navy Human Resource Management Survey used to measure Decision-Making Practices:

4. Decisions are made in this command at those levels where the most adequate and accurate information is available.
5. Information is widely shared in this command so that those who make decisions have access to all available know-how.
6. When decisions are being made, to what extent are the people affected asked for their ideas?

For many individuals and groups in an organization a major portion of the time is spent involved in decision-making activities. This is especially true for persons and groups at upper levels of management. In a large measure, the productivity of an organization depends on the quality of decisions made by its members. Thus, an important aspect of Command Climate is the way decisions are made in the organization.

When considering decision-making in organizations, two aspects of the process are of primary concern. These are (1) the people who should be involved, and (2) the way these people are involved. Several criteria have been suggested for evaluating these factors. They include:

1. The *quality* required of the decision.
2. The degree of *acceptance* required to effectively implement the decision.
3. The *speed* with which a decision need be reached.
4. The *values* associated with various decisions.
5. The *costs* associated with reaching a decision.

Although each of the five criteria can be fruitfully used to decide who should be included in decision-making activities and how they should be involved, it is the first two which are especially critical and thus, warrant additional consideration.

The importance of decision quality and decision acceptance varies greatly from situation to situation. In some cases it is crucial that decisions be of extremely high quality; in other cases several decisions of varying quality may be acceptable. Similarly, there are times when decisions, if they are to be effective, require strong support from many persons. On the other hand, there are cases when decisions need not have wide-spread support. Various mixes of the needs for quality and acceptance suggest different approaches to decision-making. These are illustrated in Figure 9.

Figure 9[a]

Acceptance and Quality in Decision-Making

Acceptance: highly concerned with the feelings of the persons who must execute the decision; a sensitive human relations solution required.

	Lo Quality	Hi Quality
Hi Acceptance	Decision requires feelings, fairness, acceptance (participation by those affected)	Decision requires acceptance and high quality solution (skillful leader required)
Lo Acceptance	Neither acceptance nor expertness required (need a quick, simple decision making process)	Decision requires expertness, little emotional interest (leader/expert decides)

Quality: highly concerned with objective facts; an elegant technical solution required.

[a]From Mann, F.C. & Morris, W.C. "Looking at a problem-solving discussion". Center for Research on Utilization of Scientific Knowledge, Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan.

Each of the quadrants in this figure represents a mixture of the necessity for acceptance and quality. In the lower left-hand quadrant, the situation described is one where neither quality nor acceptance of the decision is important. This case calls for a quick, simple solution. For example, one could simply flip a coin to make the decision. In the upper left-hand quadrant, the quality of the decision is not important, but acceptance is. The process for decision-making in this case requires the participation of those who must implement the decision and those affected by it to gain understanding and acceptance of the decision. This participation may be gained through group meetings to facilitate the transmission of information both up and down levels of hierarchy. The lower right-hand quadrant describes a situation in which acceptance of the decision has little importance, but the quality must be high. Here, the decision must be made by either a recognized expert or a recognized leader. Finally, the most challenging situation is noted in the upper right-hand quadrant where wide acceptance and high quality are equally important. The process called for here involves participation together with skillful leadership.

Considerations of who should be involved in the decision-making process also relate to the level in the organization at which decisions are made. This may be thought of in terms of hierarchical levels ranging from non-supervisory personnel to top management. The nature of decisions made by people at the various hierarchical levels differs with respect to areas of responsibility. Those persons at higher levels are faced with decisions concerning general organizational policy. As one moves down the

hierarchy, decisions affect smaller segments of the organization and provide more specific operationalizations of general policies established by upper levels. Although upper levels of management should be responsible for general or organizational policy, this does not mean the decisions regarding such policy are made in the absence of inputs from persons in lower level positions. In fact, in effective organizations, there is a free-flow of information up as well as down the organization and decisions are based on the best information available regardless of where the source of that information lies.

In addition to considering the level at which decisions are best made, it is important to consider how many people are actively involved in the decision making process. One can imagine decisions best made by individuals, groups, or even all members of an organization.

As noted, groups have often been identified as the crucial organizational unit. It is with this thought in mind that we focus on the utilization of groups rather than individuals or total organizations in decision-making situations. Several assets as well as some liabilities can be identified when groups are considered as decision-making units. In addition, other aspects of group problem-solving may be either an asset or a liability depending upon the quality of the leadership provided.

Probably the most commonly acknowledged asset of using groups in the decision-making process is that several people are likely to have more factual knowledge or information relevant to the problem than will a single individual. A second, and closely related asset, is that several individuals will have a greater ability to see a variety of approaches to problem

resolution than will a single individual. These two factors together suggest that solutions reached by a group of people attain a higher level of quality than those reached by an individual. The third and fourth assets of group problem-solving are also closely associated; involvement of a number of individuals in the decision-making process increases understanding and, as noted above, the likelihood of acceptance of the final outcome. The ability of a group to understand why various alternatives have been rejected in the process and exactly how the decision actually developed is crucial to proper execution. With this understanding, acceptance by the group becomes much less difficult. These two factors are especially critical in those instances where more than one person is affected by the outcome. In fact, almost all organizational decisions affect many persons and must be supported by them to be effective.

Four liabilities are often noted in conjunction with the use of groups in decision-making processes. The first is that individuals within groups may not carefully and objectively evaluate a variety of decisions because social pressures toward conformity discourages such evaluations. Thus, group members may readily endorse solutions merely to avoid interpersonal conflict. A second potentially harmful factor in the use of groups is that decisions which receive a great deal of support by an active minority may be accepted even though the majority of individuals within the group do not support the decision or have better solutions. Closely related to this factor is the possibility of individual domination. This can occur when an individual, through his persuasive ability or stubborn persistence, dominates other group members or the process and forces a less than satisfactory decision on the group. The final potential disadvantage

of the group decision-making method is that goals set within the group are not always congruent with obtaining the best possible decision. For example, group members may be more interested in having their own solutions accepted or in winning an argument than in reaching decisions that are beneficial to everyone.

Several factors also have been noted as either assets or liabilities in group problem-solving depending on the quality of group leadership. The utilization of groups for making decisions is likely to surface disagreements among group members which may have either positive or negative effects. On the positive side, they may result in creative solutions based on integrations of several viewpoints. On the other hand, disagreements may result in harsh feelings among group members causing overall acceptance of the decision to diminish. Another factor is that groups are generally more willing to take risks than are individuals. This, too, may have either a positive or negative effect depending on the leader's ability to help group members evaluate the risks. Time is another critical factor that can be considered an asset or a liability in group decision-making. Although groups generally require more time than individuals to make decisions, skillful leadership can assure that the time used is no more than needed to tap all available knowledge. In many group decision-making situations, leaders tend to be too anxious to reach a decision and fail to provide adequate time to effectively resolve problems. However, allocation of too much time can also be detrimental, resulting in boredom and wasted time which could better be used elsewhere.

It should be emphasized that many of the assets and liabilities of groups are highly dependent upon the quality of leadership. With a skillful leader, group decision-making sessions can provide more participation, more creativity, higher quality, and increased acceptance of solutions.

Effective decision-making involves several separate and somewhat distinct phases. Each is important and each involves skill. The entire process can be defined in terms of six major phases:

1. *Orientation and problem definition.* In this phase the aim is to communicate the problem objectively. All known aspects of the problem should be identified and each member of the group should be able to restate the problem in an objective way. Based on this first phase, a judgement should be made regarding the importance of the acceptance and quality dimensions.
2. *Solution identification.* The goal of the solution identification phase is to identify as many different solutions as possible. A key to success in this phase is that solutions should not be evaluated. All possible solutions are accepted regardless of how outlandish they may seem. The goal is to identify as many solutions as possible. This requires a creative atmosphere where ideas can be suggested without the possibility of evaluation or ridicule.
3. *Solution evaluation.* Once all possible solutions have been suggested, the evaluation process begins. It is during this period that various solutions can be discarded or integrated with others. It is important that it is the solutions which are evaluated and win/lose conflicts between group members are avoided.

4. *Solution selection.* Once the various solutions have been evaluated, a decision must be made about which solution(s) will be implemented. This decision may be made in a variety of ways including majority vote, consensus, silent consent, etc. How the decision is made to some extent should depend upon the importance of acceptance and quality as noted earlier.
5. *Implementation action.* Following the solution selection specific steps must be designed to implement the decision. This might include the identification of short-term plans as well as long-term goals. It might also include the identification of forces supporting and resisting the action steps. It is important during this phase to identify specific actions.
6. *Evaluation of decision.* As a final step, plans should be made to evaluate the decision. Both the time and method (who and how) for such evaluation should be specified.

As the questions at the outset of this section indicate, the Decision-Making Practices index in Command Climate examines only two aspects of this process (i.e., level at which decisions are made, and information basis for the decisions). Many other aspects are measured by questions focusing on the other major areas covered by the Human Resource Management Survey.

III-A-4. Motivation

Questions from the Navy Human Resource Management Survey used to measure Motivational Conditions:

7. To what extent do you feel motivated to contribute your best efforts to the command's mission and tasks?
8. Do you regard your duties in this command as helping your career?
9. Work group members who contribute the most are rewarded the most.

One of the most important questions to be asked about organizational functioning is why individuals choose among many possible behaviors. The response to such a question most often includes some assumptions about motivation. There are many ideas about motivation, but motivation is generally recognized to be influenced by interactions among characteristics of the individual and policies and practices of the organization. From the time an individual chooses to become a member of the organization to the time he leaves that organization, his choices of behaviors are explainable in terms of these interactions.

There are two crucial aspects of motivation. One focuses upon *what* it takes to get people to choose among alternative possible behaviors; the second is *how* those things are to be related to the desired behaviors. Several persons have suggested that the "what" question is best answered in terms of a hierarchy of needs. According to these ideas man has various needs and their fulfillment or the lack of fulfillment determines what serves to motivate choices among various possibilities.

Unsatisfied needs produce tension within the individual which, if they remain unsatisfied, lead to frustration. Probably the best known example of such a hierarchy is that described by Maslow.[6] He identifies a hierarchy including five levels of needs. From the lowest to the highest level these include:

1. Physiological
2. Safety
3. Belongingness and love
4. Self-esteem
5. Self-actualization

According to Maslow, higher level needs become motivators only after lower level needs have been fulfilled. Thus, providing opportunities for an individual to feel as though he belongs serves to motivate behavior only after physiological and safety needs are reasonably well satisfied. It is also the case that opportunities to fulfill needs that have already been satisfied will not motivate behavior.

Herzberg describes another set of ideas regarding what serves to motivate behavior.[7] He identifies two major categories of factors: "satisfiers" and "dissatisfiers." Satisfiers include such things as achievement, recognition, responsibility and growth. Among the dissatisfiers are working conditions, salary, supervision, company policies, personal life, stature, and interpersonal relations. When present, satisfiers are seen as making people happy and motivating work. When

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[6] Maslow, A.H. *Motivation and personality*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1954.

[7] Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., & Synderman, B. *The motivation to work*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1959.

lacking, dissatisfiers cause decreases in motivation. In conjunction with these ideas there has been developed a strategy for organizational improvement known as "job enrichment." This strategy emphasizes that the satisfiers should be increased, making jobs more challenging and providing opportunities for individual growth both in levels of skill and feelings of accomplishment.

Regardless of what factors are used as motivators, there remains a question of how they are to be used. Three things seem especially important in this respect. These are the individual's perception of the probability that a particular effort will result in a desired behavior, the probability that the behavior will lead to certain outcomes, and the importance of the outcome to the individual. Motivation is increased as the probability of achieving the behavior increases, the probability that the behavior will lead to the reward increases, and the reward increases in value. Although each of these is somewhat dependent upon individual characteristics and perceptions, the organization can often influence individual perceptions. This is especially true for the probability of a particular behavior leading to a reward. The beliefs about this relationship are greatly influenced by the organization through adjustments in policies and practices. In some organizations rewards are clearly tied to performance and those persons who contribute most are rewarded most. In other organizations there are few clear linkages between individual or group performance and the rewards received. In the latter case motivation would be expected to be low since individuals have nothing to gain by working hard.

III-A-5. Lower Level Influence

Questions from the Navy Human Resource Management Survey used to measure Lower Level Influence:

14. In general, how much influence do lowest level supervisors (supervisors of non-supervisory personnel) have on what goes on in your department?

15. In general, how much influence do non-supervisory personnel have on what goes on in your department?

In effective organizations the knowledge and talents of all members are utilized as much as possible. This includes personnel at all levels of the hierarchy. Lower Level Influence examines the extent to which the lowest level personnel (e.g., non-supervisory personnel and first-line supervisors) do in fact have an influence over the activities of the departments in which they are members. When functioning as it should, the organization provides the ability for such influence to occur (a) through effective group functioning where members have direct inputs to decision-making activities, and (b) through effective linking between levels of hierarchy where group members have indirect inputs to upper level groups through their supervisors. When both the intragroup and between hierarchical level processes are operating as they should, all organizational members are able to help shape the functioning of departments and, thus, the total organization.

III-B. Supervisory and Peer Leadership

Initial Discussion Questions:

1. What characteristics differentiate effective from ineffective leaders?
2. How does your supervisor help or hinder you in performing your job?
3. How do your peers provide help or hindrances to you in your job?
4. How do you help or hinder others in their attempts to work effectively?

Leadership has provided the focus for extensive research over the past quarter century. Early studies of leadership concentrated on the identification of various traits characterizing good leaders. The traits isolated in these studies fall into three major categories:

1. behavioral characteristics--e.g., socialibility, aggressiveness
2. aptitude--e.g., intelligence, originality
3. biographical characteristics--e.g., education, family, experience.

These traits were studied on the assumption that they could be used to distinguish between more and less effective leaders. Although the trait approach identified numerous characteristics, it did not yield information sufficient to distinguish effective from ineffective leaders. This suggested that other factors were major determinants of effective leadership.

In part, as a reaction to the lack of pay-off from the trait approach, the focus of leadership research shifted from traits to specific behaviors. This approach is based on the assumption that specific behaviors can be used to distinguish variations in leadership effectiveness. In fact, this approach has been successful in demonstrating strong relationships between certain leadership behaviors and indicators of group and organizational functioning. In general, these behaviors can be identified according to four major leadership factors:[8] Support, Teamwork, Work Facilitation, Goal Emphasis. Each of these factors has been found to relate to organizational functioning. Two of the factors (Support and Teamwork) focus on interpersonal or group maintenance aspects of leadership behavior; the remaining two (Goal Emphasis and Work Facilitation) focus on goal attainment or task achievement.

An important facet of leadership is the fact that peers can act as leaders to each other, e.g., behave in ways described by the four factors, in the same way that a supervisor can behave toward subordinates. In the Navy Peer Leadership indices include Peer Support, Peer Teamwork, Peer Work Facilitation, and Peer Problem Solving.

Another consideration is that the behaviors described by the four factors may occur independently or in a variety of combinations. The most effective leader is the one exhibiting all of these behaviors together.

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[8] For a detailed description of these factors see Bowers, D.G. and Seashore, S.E. Predicting Organizational Effectiveness with a Four-Factor Theory of Leadership. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 1966, *11*(2), 238-263.

Thus, even though we might find a leader who is supportive and emphasizes the task, he or she may still not be effective due to a lack of strength in the remaining factors. In fact, leaders can be characterized through identifying areas of relative strengths and weakness on the four factors. For example, a leader strong on supportive behavior, but weak in the remaining three areas, can be characterized as a "nice guy." Although he may be liked, he may also be an ineffective leader because of a lack of emphasis on (a) getting people to work together, (b) goal attainment, and (c) removing obstacles impairing task accomplishment. A second type might be strong on goal emphasis but weak in the remaining areas. This type of leader might be thought of as an "autocrat." The strong emphasis given goals by the autocrat leads to the omission of the behaviors required to attain these goals. An integration of the leader strong in support and the leader strong in goal emphasis but weak in the remaining two areas suggests a third type of leader we might call the "nice autocrat." This leader is friendly and maintains high standards, but accomplishes very little because he doesn't build an effective work team or facilitate work by planning, scheduling, and coordinating activities. A final example is the leader who has no notable strengths, being weak in all four areas--the "country club" manager. He appears to have no problems and is generally satisfied, but he gets very little done. Several other characterizations can be made by imagining various combinations of strengths and weaknesses in the four areas. *It is important to remember that effective leaders are not strong in just one or two of these areas, but in all four.*

III-B-1. Supervisory Support

Questions from the Navy Human Resource Management Survey used to measure Supervisory Support:

16. How friendly and easy to approach is your supervisor?
17. When you talk with your supervisor, to what extent does he pay attention to what you are saying?
18. To what extent is your supervisor willing to listen to your problems?
19. My supervisor makes it easy to tell him when things are not going as well as he expects.

Supervisory Support refers to behaviors directed from a superior toward his subordinates that enhance their feelings of being worthwhile persons doing useful work. A major focus of this facet of leadership behavior is the extent to which subordinates see the supervisor as being receptive to them and their ideas. This includes both personal receptivity and paying attention to inputs regarding aspects of the job. Supervisors low in this area are viewed as seldom having enough time to listen to what subordinates have to say; in fact, they leave the impression that they don't really value subordinates' inputs because they never act on their suggestions. The predictable outcome of such behaviors is a blockage of upward communications within the group and between levels of hierarchy throughout the organization.

On the other hand, supportive supervisory behavior can result in increased inputs from subordinates including suggestions for improving the way the work gets accomplished. A predictable outcome of high levels of Supervisory Support is a good flow of information from one level of the hierarchy to the level above. As was noted in the Communication Flow aspect of Command Climate, and the discussion concerning the relationships among groups at different hierarchical levels, this upward flow of information is important to effective organizational functioning.

III-B-2. Supervisory Teamwork

Questions from the Navy Human Resource Management Survey used to measure Supervisory Teamwork:

20. To what extent does your supervisor encourage the people who work for him to work as a team?
21. To what extent does your supervisor encourage the people who work for him to exchange opinions and ideas?

Supervisory Teamwork includes those behaviors on the part of a supervisor which encourage members of the work group to develop close, mutually satisfying relationships. Such behavior facilitates the development of a team working together toward common goals. Groups where these behaviors are absent are typified by high degrees of competition and poor coordination among group members. At the extreme, the supervisor plays subordinates off against each other and sabotage among group members is common.

The consequences of effective team work behaviors are quite different. In groups where the supervisor encourages teamwork and cooperation, goals are viewed as those of all group members and each member helps the other to improve group performance. In addition, such cooperation among group members in upper levels of management enhances coordination among major functional areas.

III-B-3. Supervisory Work Facilitation

Questions from the Navy Human Resource Management Survey used to measure Supervisory Work Facilitation:

24. To what extent does your supervisor help you to improve your performance?
25. To what extent does your supervisor provide you with the help you need so you can schedule work ahead of time?
26. To what extent does your supervisor offer new ideas for solving job related problems?

Supervisory Work Facilitation focuses on behaviors often thought of as somewhat more traditional supervisory duties. As the questions from the Navy Human Resource Management Survey indicate, these are behaviors which help organize work and provide assistance both in the form of additional expertise to subordinates and by upgrading capabilities of subordinates. The organizing aspects may include a variety of activities including planning and scheduling work such that boredom is minimized

and work is not being constantly interrupted at inappropriate or inconvenient times, and coordinating people and materials such that tasks requiring the presence of them are not delayed due to their absence. Assistance can be provided to subordinates in many forms and ways. For example, a supervisor may simply help by sharing his ideas and knowledge to help solve problems that subordinates have encountered. Another, and often more advantageous way, is for the supervisor to provide opportunities (e.g., formal training courses, new experiences) for the subordinates to expand their own levels of expertise such that they themselves can solve problems better.

III-B-4. Supervisory Goal Emphasis

Questions from the Navy Human Resource Management Survey used to measure Supervisory Goal Emphasis:

22. To what extent does your supervisor encourage people to give their best effort?
23. To what extent does your supervisor maintain high personal standards of performance?

Goal Emphasis encompasses those aspects of behavior which directly relate to the task and its accomplishment. In its most positive form it is behavior that stimulates an enthusiasm for meeting goals and achieving excellent performance. This includes the supervisor encouraging group members to give their best efforts and maintaining personal high standards of performance.

III-B-5. Peer Support

Questions from the Navy Human Resource Management Survey used to measure Peer Support:

27. How friendly and easy to approach are the members of your work group?
28. When you talk with the members in your work group, to what extent do they pay attention to what you are saying?
29. To what extent are the members in your work group willing to listen to your problems?

Peer Support behaviors are those directed by subordinates toward one another which enhance their mutual feelings of being important persons doing worthwhile work. Like Supervisory Support, the emphasis of this facet is on receptivity to others both in a personal and task-related sense. Strengths in this area indicate a group where members feel free to speak with one another and value each other as persons who have important contributions to make. Under these circumstances the group can be expected to have good communications among its members, problems will be solved and decisions will be made through a sharing of information, and activities will be well coordinated. The lack of good Peer Support often results in poor cooperation among members and generally lower quality decisions based on insufficient information.

III-B-6. Peer Teamwork

Questions from the Navy Human Resource Management Survey used to measure Peer Teamwork:

30. How much do members of your work group encourage each other to work as a team?
31. How much do members in your work group stress a team goal?
32. How much do people in your work group encourage each other to give their best effort?
33. To what extent do people in your work group maintain high standards of performance?

Peer Teamwork combines many facets of leadership behavior among peers that parallel behaviors encompassed by the Supervisory Teamwork and Supervisory Goal Emphasis. As the above questions suggest, Peer Teamwork focuses on working together toward common goals, and on encouraging one's best effort and maintaining high standards in reaching those goals. At its low end this aspect of Peer Leadership suggests a loosely formed group with members working independenily of one another without a clear common goal. The high end describes a closely knit group of individuals sharing an enthusiasm for attaining common goals in the best way possible.

III-B-7. Peer Work Facilitation

Questions from the Navy Human Resource Management Survey used to measure Peer Work Facilitation:

34. To what extent do members in your work group help you find ways to improve your performance?
35. To what extent do members of your work group provide the help you need so you can plan, organize and schedule work ahead of time?

Much as the supervisor can make the work easier for subordinates, peers can also help each other. This help takes two specific forms encompassed by the Peer Work Facilitation area. These are: (1) by helping upgrade performance through various means (e.g., providing helpful suggestions about how the job might be more efficiently done, teaching skills), and (2) by coordinating efforts and planning tasks such that adequate preparation is possible to efficiently complete tasks.

III-B-8. Peer Problem Solving

Questions from the Navy Human Resource Management Survey used to measure Peer Problem Solving:

36. To what extent do members of your work group offer each other new ideas for solving job related problems?
37. Members of my work group take the responsibility for resolving disagreements and working out acceptable solutions.
38. To what extent do people in your work group exchange opinions and ideas?

The fourth and final major area in Peer Leadership is Peer Problem Solving. This area is similar in many ways to the Decision-Making Practices discussed above under Command Climate. The focus of Peer Problem Solving are those behaviors which affect the quality and acceptability of decisions to group members. The principle difference between those conditions and behaviors described as part of Decision-Making Practices and those making up Peer Problem Solving is that Peer Problem Solving focuses on activities among group members rather than across groups within the organization.

III-C. Work Group Processes

Initial Discussion Questions:

1. How well does your work group accomplish its day-to-day tasks?
2. How well does your work group perform in unusual situations?
3. Does your work group accomplish its duties in the most efficient way possible?
4. Are Navy standards upheld by members of your work group?

As a result of the various conditions and behaviors described by the Command Climate, Supervisory Leadership and especially the Peer Leadership factors, groups operate in certain ways. Some of these are described by the three major aspects of Work Group Processes: (1) Work Group Coordination. (2) Work Group Readiness, and (3) Work Group Discipline. For many groups a judgement of the quality of group performance is based directly on these factors. These areas describe how well the groups accomplish their tasks.

III-C-1. Work Group Coordination

Questions from the Navy Human Resource Management Survey used to measure Group Process:

39. To what extent does your work group plan together and coordinate its efforts?
40. To what extent do you have confidence and trust in the members of your work group?
41. To what extent is information about important events widely exchanged within your work group?
42. To what extent does your work group make good decisions and solve problems well?

As these questions indicate, Work Group Coordination is tied closely to several aspects of Peer Leadership behaviors. The performance of groups at upper levels of the organization largely determines the conditions within which groups at lower levels must operate. Thus, as we noted in the introductory section, Command Climate for a particular work group is shaped by policies and practices established by groups higher in the organization. To a great extent, these policies and practices are a direct result of the Work Group Coordination aspects of the group's functioning.

III-C-2. Work Group Readiness

Questions from the Navy Human Resource Management Survey used to measure Work Group Readiness:

43. To what extent has your work group been adequately trained to handle emergency situations?

44. My work group performs well under pressure or in emergency situations.

45. My work group can meet day-to-day mission requirements well.

The Work Group Readiness aspect of the Work Group Processes factor is quite clear and straightforward. It refers to the performance of the group under both normal and emergency situations. Again, this aspect relates closely to the effectiveness of Peer Leadership. Good Peer Leadership should result in high levels of Work Group Readiness.

III-C-3. Work Group Discipline

Questions from the Navy Human Resource Management Survey used to measure Work Group Discipline:

46. The members of my work group reflect Navy standards of military courtesy, appearance and grooming.

47. I feel that Navy standards of order and discipline are maintained within my work group.

The Work Group Discipline factor represents another aspect of group performance valued within the Navy. A probable reason for the establishment of this norm is that such performance is thought to relate to those aspects of task accomplishment requiring high degrees of predictability from many members of the organization.

III-D. Satisfaction

Initial Discussion Questions:

1. Which aspects of your job are most enjoyable for you?
2. Which things in your job do you enjoy least?
3. Are there things that you enjoy doing on your job that others with similar jobs do not like? Do others like things you do not enjoy?

How a person feels about various aspects of his work situation depends both on the experienced characteristics of that situation and the expectations of the individual. Different people react differently to very similar situations and the same person will react differently to different situations.

It is difficult to talk about an individual's "satisfaction" without specifying *what* the person is reacting to. Although an indication of general satisfaction can be obtained, it is difficult to derive much meaning from such a reading without understanding the individual's expectations and there basis, and the particular aspects of the situation being reacted to. Once these are known, steps can be initiated to improve satisfaction.

Questions from the Navy Human Resource Management Survey used to Measure Satisfaction:

48. All in all, how satisfied are you with the people in your work group?
49. All in all, how satisfied are you with your supervisor?
50. All in all, how satisfied are you with your job?
51. All in all, how satisfied are you with this command, compared to most others?

52. All in all, how satisfied do you feel with the progress you have made in the Navy, up to now?

53. How satisfied do you feel with your chance for getting ahead in the Navy in the future?

54. Does your assigned work give you pride and feelings of self-worth?

IV. RELATIONSHIPS AMONG THE FACTORS--THE MODEL

IV-A. Within-Group Relationships

In the preceeding sections Command Climate, Supervisory Leadership, Peer Leadership, and Work Group Processes were identified as key social-psychological aspects of organizational functioning. As the descriptions of these aspects suggest, each factor includes many conditions or behaviors. Knowledge of these various conditions and behaviors is important for understanding how organizations function. But, this information is not sufficient if the ultimate goal is to improve the way work is accomplished. Such a goal requires more complete information including an understanding of how these major factors are related to one another.

Research using civilian and Navy data has provided some indications of the nature of these relationships.[9] Figure 10 illustrates these causal linkages among the four major social-psychological factors.

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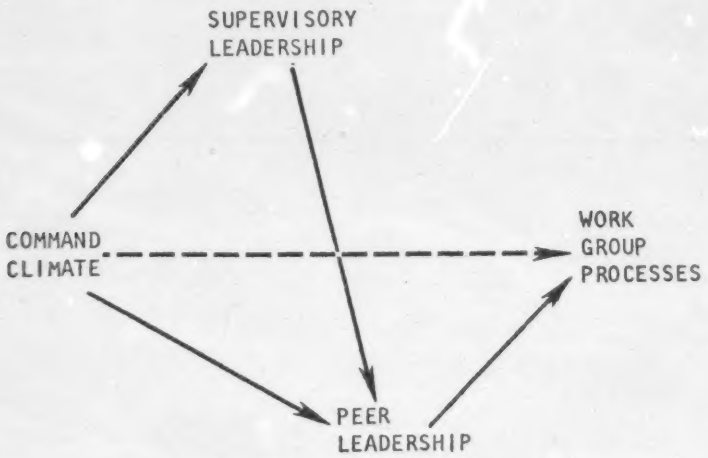
[9] The description of these relationships is based on studies reported in two technical reports: (1) Franklin, J.L. A path analytic approach to describing causal relationships among social-psychological factors in multi-level organizations. Report to the Office of Naval Research, 1973; (2) Franklin, J.L. Hierarchical differences in Navy functioning. Report to the Office of Naval Research, 1974.

Figure 10

RELATIONSHIPS AMONG COMMAND CLIMATE,
SUPERVISORY LEADERSHIP, PEER LEADERSHIP, AND WORK GROUP PROCESSES



As noted in the introductory section, and as illustrated in the above figure, the conditions, policies, and practices included in Command Climate play a large role in shaping leadership behaviors of supervisors and peers, and to a lesser extent, determine the nature of conditions and behaviors among group members included in Work Group Processes.

Supervisory Leadership behaviors also have been found to be key determinants of Peer Leadership. In most cases subordinates, in their interactions with each other, seem to mirror the supervisor's behaviors. Thus, the subordinates' leadership behaviors are largely determined by both the conditions and practices included in Command Climate and leadership behaviors of the supervisor.

The Work Group Processes are the last link of the causal chain in Figure 10. The major determinant is Peer Leadership but Command Climate also has some slight direct influence on Work Group Processes. What may be surprising is the lack of direct influence the supervisor has over these factors. Data from both civilian and Navy organizations indicate that the Supervisory influence over factors like those included in Work Group Processes comes mainly through the supervisor's ability to influence Peer Leadership behaviors.[10]

[10] Work Group Discipline has not been included in the analyses concluded thus far.

IV-B. Between-Level Relationships

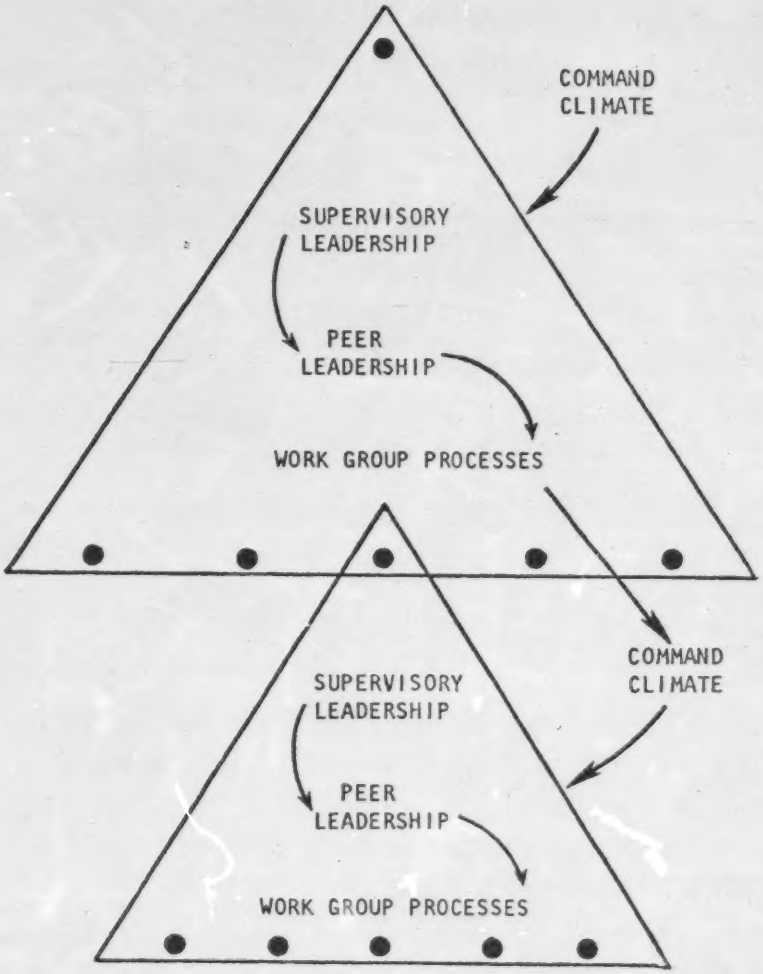
In addition to these relationships among major factors within any group, relationships have been established between factors in different groups. Specifically, there are known relationships between behaviors in a group at one level of the organization and groups above or below in the hierarchy. In the previous sections it was noted that Command Climate for any given group was determined by other groups, especially those above in the hierarchy. Research has demonstrated the nature of this process. Specifically, the Command Climate for a particular group has been found to be shaped to a great degree by the Work Group Processes from the hierarchically superior group. Thus, the way the lower group's superior interacts with his peers to form Work Group Processes determines the situations in which the group he supervises must operate. This is illustrated in Figure 11.

One important aspect of this process is that the Work Group Processes will have greater effects on Command Climate throughout the organization for groups at upper levels of the hierarchy and for groups with more rather than fewer groups directly below them. Thus, the upper-most group affects the Command Climate throughout the organization more than groups at lower hierarchical levels.

Another important facet of this process involves the time needed for changes in Work Group Processes at an upper level to create changes in Command Climate in lower level groups. Under normal circumstances, the time lag for changes to pass down one level in the hierarchy is about one year. Clearly, changes in Command Climate are both complex and time consuming.

Figure 11

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN HIERARCHICALLY RELATED GROUPS



V. EXERCISES FOR LEARNING AND TEACHING THE CONCEPTS

Although not everyone agrees how best to learn and teach concepts such as those presented in the previous chapters, most people find some value in gaining a "hands on" experience through learning exercises. There are many such exercises available. They vary both in complexity and the number of participants required. The choice of an appropriate exercise to facilitate learning or teaching a particular concept should not be done without considerable thought. An exercise that is very good for focusing on one concept may be completely inappropriate for any number of others.

In addition, the constructive use of exercises requires extensive planning and preparation. Good exercises are like good tools; they must be used properly to realize their potential. When used correctly, exercises have proven to be extremely valuable aids for acquiring the knowledge of critical concepts describing organizational functioning.

Group exercises can be classified according to four major descriptive categories. The first includes exercises using guided interactions as a basis for learning. A structure or framework is provided for participants to direct their thoughts and actions in certain directions. Examples of this method are interviews, questions, sequenced or programmed instruction, and graphics (e.g., Concepts Training sessions may begin by

having organizational members draw an organizational chart of their command).

A second category of exercises includes those exercises presenting built-in difficulties or examples of organizational problems. Participants learn about concepts such as leadership, communications, and problem-solving by experiencing situations containing problems in those areas. The exercises presented in Section V-B of this manual fall into this category.

The third category involves the use of structured methods to collect information which is subsequently shared, discussed, and evaluated in a group. Typically, these instrument activities require individuals to complete questionnaires, rating sheets, self disclosure charts, or sociometric diagrams.

The final group of exercises includes techniques such as non-verbal communications, fantasy, physical contact, and unstructured discussions to provide a greater awareness of one's self and the environment.

In the two subsections which follow sources for exercises are presented together with some examples of exercises which have proven useful for teaching and learning the concepts in this manual.

V-A. Sources of Exercises

Several exercises have been developed and made available. Many can be used directly in the form that they are available or with only slight modifications. Among the sources for these exercises are the following:

1. University Associates, PO Box 80637, San Diego, California 92138.

   This source publishes several pieces that contain exercises. Probably the best is a series of four handbooks devoted exclusively to exercises:

   Pfeiffer, J.W. & Jones, J.E. (eds.), *A Handbook of structured experiences for human relations training*, volumes I, II, III, IV.

   A second type of publication is an annual handbook including a subsection devoted to structured experiences. There are currently three editions:

   Pfeiffer, J.W. & Jones, J.E. (eds.), *The (1972 1973, 1974) Annual handbook for group facilitators.*

2. The National Training Laboratories Learning Resources Corporation 1812 K Street, N.W., Suite 305, Washington, D.C. 20006.

   The National Training Laboratories publishes several packets of exercises, some of which can be used to teach the concepts included in this manual. One such package entitled "Twenty Exercises for Trainers" includes materials for training in communications, leadership, and decision-making as well as other areas.

3. A third major source includes books which actually provide integrations of theoretical materials with training exercises for specific concepts. One early book in this area that includes extensive theoretical materials and some excellent

exercises is:

Maier, N.R.F. *Psychology in industry.* Boston, Mass.: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1965.

Two more recent books which provide less theory but rather elaborate materials for exercises are:

Knudson, H.R., Woodworth, R.T., & Bell, C.H. *Management: An experiential approach.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1973.

Kolb, D.A. *Organizational psychology: An experiential approach.* Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1974.

V-B. Examples of Exercises

Below are presented four exercises useful for learning and teaching important concepts. These are presented in the volumes by J.W. Pfeiffer and J.E. Jones entitled "A handbook of structured experiences for human relations training". Some slight modifications have been made from the original materials but the exercises are basically the same as presented by those authors.

V-B-1. Broken Squares

Goals

I. To analyze certain aspects of cooperation in solving a group problem.

II. To sensitize the participants to some of their own behaviors which may contribute toward or obstruct the solving of a group problem.

Group Size

Any number of groups of six participants each. There will be five participants and an observer/judge.

Time Required

Fifteen minutes for the exercise and fifteen minutes for discussion.

Materials Utilized

I. Chalkboard, chalk, eraser.

II. Tables that will seat five participants each.

III. One set of instructions for each group of five participants and one for the observer/judge.

IV. One set of broken squares for each group of five participants.

Physical Setting

Tables should be spaced far enough apart so that the various groups cannot observe the activities of other groups.

Process

The facilitator may wish to begin with a discussion of the meaning of cooperation; this should lead to suggestions by the groups of what is essential in successful group cooperation. These may be listed on the board, and the facilitator may introduce the exercise by indicating that the groups will conduct an experiment to test their suggestions. Basic suggestions which the facilitator may want to bring out of the groups are as follows:

1. Each individual must understand the total problem.

2. Each individual should understand how he can contribute toward solving the problem.

3. Each individual should be aware of the potential contributions of other individuals.

4. There is a need to recognize the problems of other individuals, in order to aid them in making their maximum contribution.

Instructions are as follows:

A. When the preliminary discussion is finished, the facilitator chooses an observer/judge for each group of five participants. These observers are each given a copy of their instructions. The facilitator then asks each group to distribute the envelopes from the prepared packets. The envelopes are to remain unopened until the signal to work is given.

B. The facilitator distributes a copy of the instructions to each group.

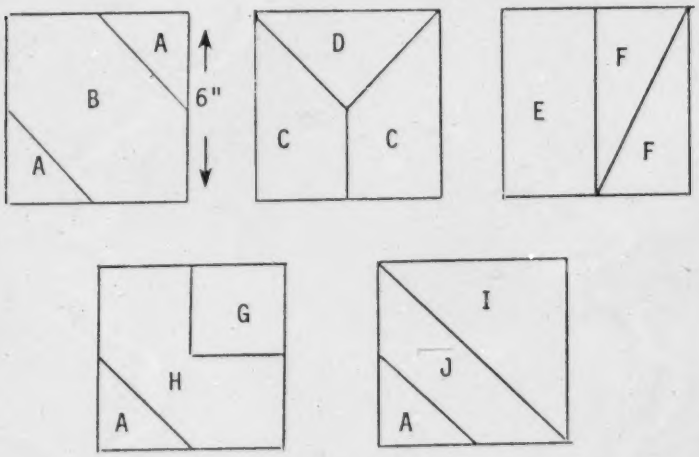
C. The facilitator then reads the instructions to the group, calling for questions or questioning groups as to their understanding of the instructions. It will be necessary for the facilitator or his assistants to monitor the tables during the exercise to enforce the rules which have been established in the instructions.

D. When all the groups have completed the task, the facilitator will engage the groups in a discussion of the experience. Discussion should focus on feelings more than merely relating experiences and general observations. Observations are solicited from the observer/judges. The facilitator may want the groups to relate this experience with their "back home" situations.

Directions for Making a Set of Squares

A set consists of five envelopes containing pieces of cardboard which have been cut into different patterns and which, when properly arranged, will form five squares of equal size. One set should be provided for each group of five persons.

To prepare a set, cut out five cardboard squares of equal size, approximately six-by-six inches. Place the squares in a row and mark them as below, penciling the letters a, b, c, etc., lightly, so that they can later be erased.



The lines should be so drawn that, when cut out, all pieces marked a will be of exactly the same size, all pieces marked c of the same size, etc. By using multiples of three inches, several combinations will be possible that will enable participants to form one or two squares, but only one combination is possible that will form five squares six-by-six inches.

After drawing the lines on the six-by-six inch squares and labeling them with lower case letters, cut each square as marked into smaller pieces to make the parts of the puzzle.

Mark the five envelopes A, B, C, D, and E. Distribute the cardboard pieces in the five envelopes as follows:

Envelope A has pieces	i, h, e
B	a, a, a, c
C	a, j
D	d, f
E	g, b, f, c

Erase the penciled letter from each piece and write, instead, the appropriate envelope letter. This will make it easy to return the pieces to the proper envelope for subsequent use when a group has completed the task.

Instructions to the Group

In this packet there are five envelopes, each of which contains pieces of cardboard for forming squares. When the facilitator gives the signal to begin, the task of your group is to form *five* squares of equal size. The task will not be completed until each individual has before him a perfect square of the same size as that held by others.

Specific limitations are imposed upon your group during this exercise:

1. No member may speak.
2. No member may ask another member for a card or in any way signal that another person is to give him a card.
3. Members may, however, give cards to other members.

Are the instructions clear? [Questions are answered.]

Facilitator gives signal, "Begin working."

Instructions to the Observer/Judge

Observer:

Your job is part observer and part judge. Make sure each participant observes the rules:

1. No talking, pointing, or any other kind of communication among the five people in your group.

2. Participants may give pieces to other participants but may *not* take pieces from other members.

3. Participants may not simply throw their pieces into the center for others to take; they have to give the pieces directly to one individual.

4. It is permissible for a member to give away all the pieces to his puzzle, even if he has already formed a square.

Do your best to strictly enforce these rules.

As an observer, you may want to look for some of the following:

1. Who is willing to give away pieces of the puzzle?

2. Did anyone finish his puzzle and then somewhat divorce himself from the struggles of the rest of the group?

3. Is there anyone who continually struggles with his pieces but yet is unwilling to give any or all of them away?

4. How many people are actively engaged in mentally putting the pieces together?

5. Periodically check the level of frustration and anxiety--who's pulling his hair out?

6. Was there any critical turning point at which time the group began to cooperate?

7. Did anyone try to violate the rules by talking or pointing as a means of helping fellow members solve their puzzle?

V-B-2. NASA Exercise: Seeking Consensus

Goals

I. To compare the results of individual decision-making with the results of group decision-making.

II. To experience the emergence of leadership and the use of various bases of power.

Group Size

Between six and twelve participants. Several groups may be directed simultaneously.

Time Required

Approximately one hour.

Materials Utilized

I. Pencils.

II. Individual work sheets.

III. Group work sheets.

IV. Answer sheets containing rationale for decisions.

V. Direction sheets for scoring.

Physical Setting

Participants should be seated around a square or round table. The dynamics of a group seated at a rectangular table are such that it gives too much control to persons seated at the ends.

Process

I. Each participant is given a copy of the individual work sheet and told that he has fifteen minutes to complete the exercise.

II. One group work sheet is handed to each group.

A. Individuals are *not* to change any answers on their individual sheets as a result of group discussion.

B. A member of the group is to record group consensus on this sheet.

C. The participants will have thirty minutes in which to complete the group work sheet.

III. Each participant is given a copy of the direction sheet for scoring. This phase of the experience should take seven to ten minutes.

A. They are to score their individual work sheets.

B. They will then give their score to the recorder, who will compute the average of the individual scores.

C. The recorder will then score the group work sheet.

IV. The group will compute the average score for individuals with the group score and discuss the implications of the experience. This phase of the experience should take seven to ten minutes.

V. Results are posted according to the chart below, and the facilitator directs a discussion of the outcomes of consensus-seeking and the experience of negotiating agreement.

	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3
Consensus Score			
Average Score			
Range of Individual Scores			

NASA Exercise Individual Worksheet

Instructions:

You are a member of a space crew originally scheduled to rendezvous with a mother ship on the lighted surface of the moon. Due to mechanical difficulties, however, your ship was forced to land at a spot some 200 miles from the rendezvous point. During landing, much of the equipment aboard was damaged, and, since survival depends on reaching the mother ship, the most critical items available must be chosen for the 200-mile trip. Below are listed the 15 items left intact and undamaged after landing. Your task is to rank order them in terms of their importance to your crew in allowing them to reach the rendezvous point. Place the number 1 by the most important item, the number 2 by the second most important, and so on, through number 15, the least important. *You have 15 minutes to complete this phase of the exercise.*

____ Box of matches

____ Food concentrate

____ 50 feet of nylon rope

____ Parachute silk

____ Portable heating unit

____ Two .45 calibre pistols

____ One case dehydrated Pet milk

____ Two 100-lb. tanks of oxygen

____ Stellar map (of the moon's constellation)

____ Life raft

____ Magnetic compass

____ 5 gallons of water

____ Signal flares

____ First aid kit containing injection needles

____ Solar-powered FM receiver-transmitter

NASA Exercise Group Worksheet

Instructions:

This is an exercise in group decision-making. Your group is to employ the method of *Group Consensus* in reaching its decision. This means that the prediction for each of the 15 survival items *must* be agreed upon by each group member before it becomes a part of the group decision. Consensus is difficult to reach. Therefore, not every ranking will meet with everyone's complete *approval*. Try as a group to make each ranking one with which all group members can at least partially agree. Here are some guides to use in reaching consensus:

1. Avoid *arguing* for your own individual judgements. Approach the task on the basis of logic.

2. Avoid changing your mind *only* in order to reach agreement and avoid conflict. Support only solutions with which you are able to agree somewhat, at least.

3. Avoid "conflict-reducing" techniques such as majority vote, averaging, or trading in reaching your decision.

4. View differences of opinion as helpful rather than as a hindrance in decision-making.

____ Box of matches

____ Food concentrate

____ 50 feet of nylon rope

____ Parachute silk

____ Portable heating unit

____ Two .45 calibre pistols

____ One case dehydrated Pet milk

____ Two 100-lb. tanks of oxygen

____ Stellar map (of moon's constellation)

____ Life raft

____ Magnetic compass

____ 5 gallons of water

____ Signal flares

____ First aid kit containing injection needles

____ Solar-powered FM receiver-transmitter

NASA Exercise Answer Sheet

Rationale:	Correct Number:	
No oxygen	15	Box of matches
Supply daily food required	4	Food concentrate
For travel over rough terrain. Useful in tying injured together	6	50 feet of nylon rope
Carrying, shelter against sun's rays	8	Parachute silk
Lighted side of moon is hot	13	Portable heating unit
Some use for propulsion	11	Two .45 calibre pistols
Food, but requires water	12	One case dehydrated Pet milk
Fills respiration requirements	1	Two 100-lb. tanks of oxygen
Needed for navigation	3	Stellar map (of moon's constellation)
Some value for shelter or carrying CO_2 bottles for self-propulsion across chasms	9	Life raft

Rationale:	Correct Number:	
Moon's magnetic field is different from earth's	14	Magnetic Compass
Fills water requirements	2	5 gallons of water
Distress call when line of sight possible	10	Signal flares
First aid kit might be needed but needles are useless	7	First aid kit containing injection needles
Distress signal transmitter, possible communication with mother ship	5	Solar-powered FM receiver-transmitter

NASA Exercise Direction Sheet for Scoring

The group recorder will assume the responsibility for directing the scoring. Individuals will:

1. Score the net difference between their answers and correct answers. For example, if the answer was 9, and the correct answer was 12, the net difference is 3. Three becomes the score for that particular item.

2. Total these scores for an individual score.

3. Next, total all individual scores and divide by the number of participants to arrive at an average individual score.

4. Score the net difference between group worksheet answers and the correct answers.

5. Total these scores for a group score.

6. Compare the average individual score with the group score.

Ratings:

0-20	Excellent
20-30	Good
30-40	Average
40-50	Fair
over 50	Poor

V-B-3. One-Way and Two-Way Communication

Goals

I. To conceptualize the superior functioning of two-way communication through participatory demonstration.

II. To examine the application of communication in occupational settings.

Group Size

Minimum of ten.

Time Required

20 minutes

Materials Utilized

I. Chalkboard, chalk, and eraser.

II. Two sheets of paper and a pencil for each participant.

III. Reproductions of Chart I and Chart II.

Physical Setting

Participants should be facing the demonstrator and sitting in such a way that it will be difficult, if not impossible, to see each other's drawings. In the first phase of the exercise the demonstrator turns his back to the group or stands behind a screen.

Process

I. The facilitator may wish to begin with a discussion of ways of looking at communication in terms of content, direction, networks, or interference.

II. The facilitator indicates that the group will experiment with aspects of communication by participation in the following exercise:

A. Preliminaries: The facilitator selects a demonstrator and one or two observers. Participants are supplied with a pencil and two sheets of paper, one labeled Chart I and the other labeled Chart II.

B. Directions: The group is told that the demonstrator will give directions to draw a series of squares. The participants are instructed to draw the squares exactly as they are told by the demonstrator. These drawings will be made on the paper labeled Chart I. Participants may neither ask questions nor give audible responses.

1. Demonstrator is asked to study the diagram of squares for a period of two minutes.

2. The facilitator instructs the observers to take notes on the behavior and reactions of the demonstrator and/or the participants.

3. The facilitator places three small tables, as follows, on the chalkboard.

Table 1

MEDIANS	I	II
Time Elapsed		
Guess Accuracy		
Actual Accuracy		

Table 2

Number Correct	Guess	Actual
5		
4		
3		
2		
1		
0		

Table 3

Number Correct	Guess	Actual
5		
4		
3		
2		
1		
0		

4. The facilitator asks the demonstrator to proceed, reminding him to tell the group what to draw as quickly and accurately as he can. The facilitator will also caution the group not to ask questions and not to give audible reactions.

5. The time it takes the demonstrator to complete his instructions is recorded in Table 1.

6. Each participant is asked to estimate the number of squares he has drawn correctly in relation to the other squares.

7. Repeat the experience with the following modifications: the demonstrator uses Chart II, facing the group, and is allowed to reply to questions from the group.

8. The facilitator determines the median for guessed accuracy for trials one and two based upon the individual estimations of accuracy and indicates these on Table 2 and Table 3.

9. The group is then shown the master charts for the two sets of squares and asked to determine actual accuracy.

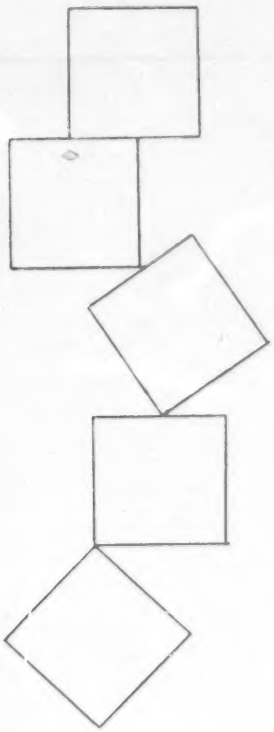
10. The facilitator determines the median for actual accuracy for trials one and two based upon the individual scores.

III. A discussion of the results in terms of time, accuracy, and level of confidence should follow, calling upon "back-home" experience and application.

IV. The observers offer their data, and the group discusses it in relation to the data generated during the first phase of the discussion.

Chart I.

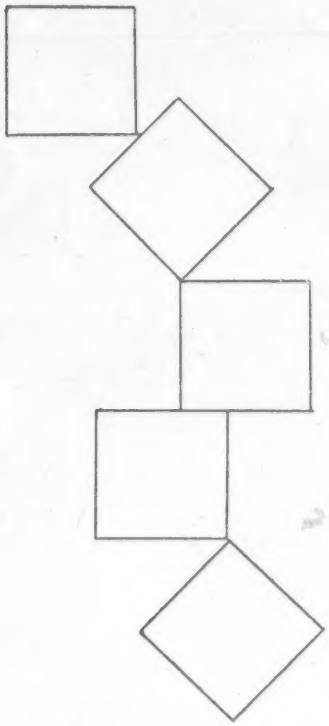
ONE-WAY COMMUNICATION



Instructions: Study the figures above. With your back to the group, you are to instruct the participants how to draw them. Begin with the top square and describe each in succession, taking particular note of the relationship of each to the preceding one. No questions are allowed.

Chart II.

TWO-WAY COMMUNICATION



Instructions: Study the figures above. Facing the group, you are to instruct the participants how to draw them. Begin with the top square and describe each in succession, taking particular note of the relation of each to the preceding one. Answer all questions from participants and repeat if necessary.

V-B-4. The "Hollow Square" Experiment

Goals

I. To become aware of the dynamics involved in planning for the accomplishment of a task which will be carried out by others

II. To become aware of the dynamics involved in carrying out the planned instructions of others in accomplishing a task.

III. To become aware of the crucial role of communication when giving or receiving instructions for carrying out a task.

Group Size

No more than twenty-three members in a single experimental group. Two or more groups of up to twenty-three members each may be used if a competition situation is desired.

Time Required

Approximately one hour.

Materials Utilized

I. Planning Team Briefing Sheets for each individual on a planning team.

II. Hollow Square Patterns for each individual on a planning team.

III. Hollow Square Key for each individual or a planning team.

IV. Envelope containing four of sixteen puzzle pieces for each individual on a planning team. Each envelope contains pieces with the same code letter, as designated on the key (four envelopes).

V. Observation Team Briefing Sheets and Observer Notes for each individual on an observing team.

VI. Operating Team Briefing Sheets for each individual on an operating team.

VII. Pencils for all group members.

VIII. Small table (card table size) for each experimental group.

Physical Setting

Room large enough to accommodate the experimental groups comfortably with access to other rooms where the planning and operating teams can be isolated. If two or more experimental groups are competing, choose the size of the room in proportion to the number of participants. Tables should be set up to become the center of activity; individuals should be able to move freely around them.

Process

I. The facilitator selects four people for the planning team and sends them out of the room to be isolated.

II. The facilitator selects four people for the operating team and sends them to another room. This room should be comfortable, since this team will have a waiting period.

III. The facilitator designates those members left (up to fifteen) as the observing team. He gives each individual a copy of the Observing Team Briefing Sheet and allows them time to read it. Each member of the observing team chooses one member of each of the other teams to observe.

IV. The facilitator explains to the observing team that they will gather around the table where the planning and operating teams will be working, and that their job will be to observe, take notes, and be ready to discuss the results of the experiment after the operating team has finished.

V. The facilitator then brings in the planning team, gathers them around the table, and distributes puzzle pieces envelopes, Planning Team Briefing Sheets, Hollow Squares Patterns, and Keys to each individual on the team.

VI. Following this distribution of materials, the facilitator explains to the planning team that all the necessary instructions are on the Briefing Sheet but that he will be there to answer questions. The facilitator answers all questions, if raised, with the phrase, "All you need to know is on the Briefing Sheet."

VII. The facilitator then cautions the observing team to remain silent and not to offer clues.

VIII. The experiment proceeds of its own accord, including summoning of the operating team without further instructions from the facilitator. If a competition situation has been established, the facilitator has the responsibility of timing the experimental groups from the moment Step Seven has been completed until the experimental groups have completed the assembly of the hollow squares.

IX. Following the completion of the experiment, the facilitator organizes a discussion around the points illustrated by the experiment. He calls on the observers for comments, raises questions himself, and gradually includes the planning and operating teams as they gain insight into their functioning.

An example of a discussion point lies in an evaluation of the Planning Team Briefing Sheet. The rules established are by exclusion, i.e., all other actions by the planning team are acceptable, such as drawing a detailed design on the Hollow Square Pattern, drawing a template on the table, or on another sheet of paper, numbering the pieces of the puzzle, etc. Has the planning team restricted its efficiency by setting up artificial constraints not prescribed by the formal rules? Have they called in the operating team early in the planning phase, an option which they are free to choose?

If there has been a competition between or among experimental groups, the elements involved which led to the winning team's efficiency may be discussed.

X. The facilitator may wish to summarize with all the important points raised during the discussion period.

Hollow Square Planning Team Briefing Sheet

Each of you will be given a packet containing four cardboard pieces which, when properly assembled with the other pieces held by members of your team, will make a hollow square design.

Your Task

During a period of twenty-five minutes you are to do the following:

1. Plan how the sixteen pieces distributed among you should be assembled to make the design.

2. Instruct your OPERATING TEAM on how to implement your plan (you may begin instructing your OPERATING TEAM at any time during the planning period--but *no later than* five minutes before they are to begin the assembling process).

General Rules

1. You must keep all pieces you have in front of you at all times.

2. You may *not* touch or trade pieces with other members of your team during the planning or instructing phase.

3. You may *not* show the KEY at any time.

4. You may *not* assemble the entire square at any time (this is to be left to your operating team).

5. You are *not* to mark on any of the pieces.

6. Members of your operating team must also observe the above rules.

7. When time is called for your team to begin assembling the pieces, you may give no further instructions, but you are to observe the operation

Hollow Square Observing Team Briefing Sheet

You will be observing a situation in which a planning team decides how to solve a problem and gives instructions to an operating team for implementation. The problem consists of assembling sixteen pieces of cardboard into the form of a hollow square. The planning team is supplied with the general layout of the pieces. This team is not to assemble the parts itself, but is to instruct the operating team on how to assemble the parts in a minimum amount of time. You will be *silent observers* throughout the process.

Suggestions:

1. Each member of the observing team should watch the general pattern of communication but give special attention to one member of the planning team (during the planning phase) and one member of the operating team (during the assembling period).

2. During the planning period watch for the following behaviors:

   a. Is there balanced participation among planning team members?

   b. What kinds of behavior block or facilitate the process?

   c. How does the planning team divide its time between planning and instructing? (How early does it invite the operating team to come in?)

3. During the instructing period, watch for the following behaviors:

   a. Which member of the planning team gives the instructions? How was this decided?

   b. What strategy was employed in orienting the operating team to the task?

   c. What assumptions made by the planning team are not communicated to the operating team?

d. How effective were the instructions?

e. Did the operating team appear to feel free to ask questions of the planners?

4. During the assembly period, watch for the following behaviors:

a. What evidence do the operating team members illustrate that instructions were clearly understood or misunderstood?

b. What non-verbal reactions did planning team members exhibit as they watched their plans being implemented or distorted?

Hollow Square Operating Team Briefing Sheet

1. You will have responsibility for carrying out a task for four people according to instructions given by your planning team. Your planning team may call you in for instructions at any time. If they do not summon you, you are to report to them anyway. Your task is scheduled to begin exactly twenty-five minutes from now. After that, no further instructions will be permitted.

2. You are to finish the assigned task as rapidly as possible.

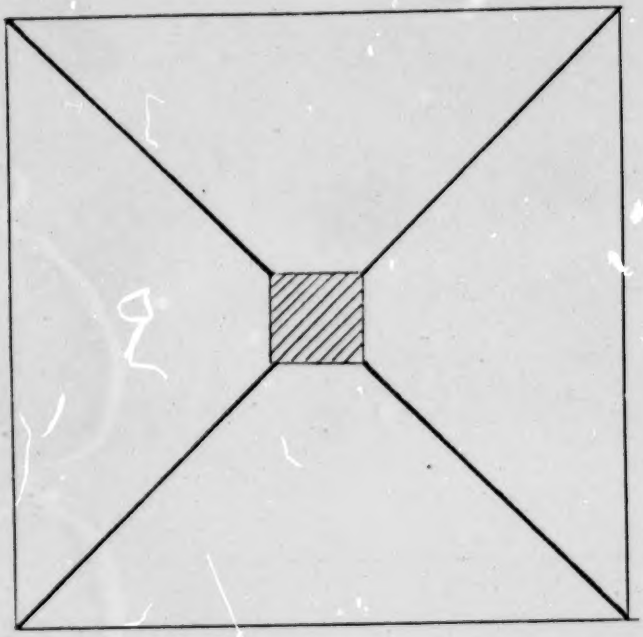
3. During the period when you are waiting for a call from your planning team, it is suggested that you discuss and make notes on the following questions:

a. What feelings and concerns do you experience while waiting for instructions for the unknown task?

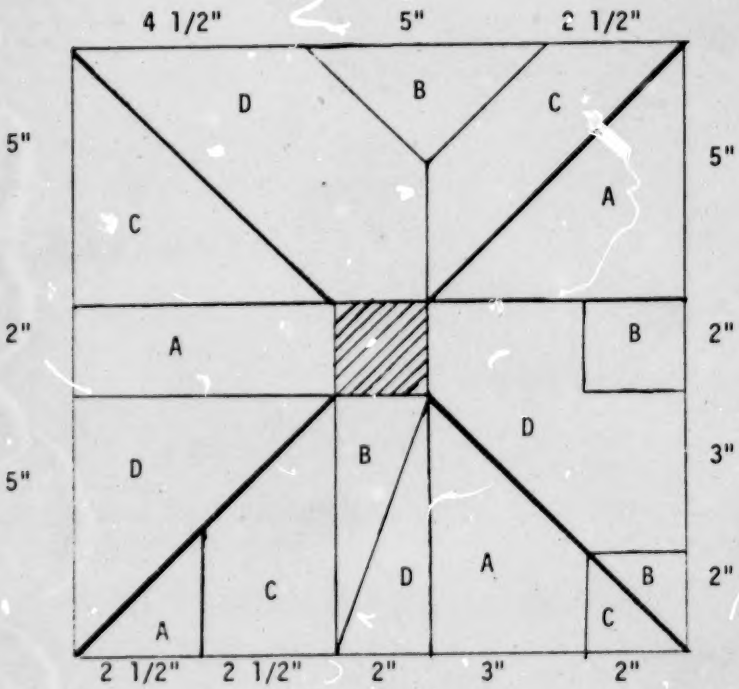
b. How can the four of you organize as a team?

4. The notes recorded on the above will be helpful during the discussion following the completion of the task.

HOLLOW SQUARE PATTERN



HOLLOW SQUARE KEY



VI. REFERENCES

This section includes references to several sources of information to assist those persons who wish to pursue these concepts in more detail. There are many sources of materials on these concepts. The sources included in this section were selected on the basis of their direct relevance to the concepts and measures used by the Navy and their availability to Navy personnel. Thus, most materials are available either from commercial publishers or through the Defense Documentation Center (Building 5, Cameron Station, Alexandria, Va., 22314). Most references are followed by a short description to further guide the choice of appropriate materials for further study.

Bowers, D.G. & Franklin, J.L. *The Navy as a functioning organization: A diagnosis*. Report to the Office of Naval Research, 1973.

Survey data much like those obtained from the Navy Human Resource Management instrument are used to evaluate organizational conditions and practices in various types of commands in the Navy. Among

the findings are the following: (1) overall, Navy units are rated slightly below average when compared to civilian organizations; (2) shore units are rated better than ship units; (3) age appears to be an important determinant of the variance between ship and shore units--younger persons are more heavily represented aboard ships and they rate the organizational conditions and practices lower than older persons; and (4) there is substantial variance in level of ratings across ship types. [See also Franklin, J. Hierarchical differences in Navy functioning]

Bowers. D.G. & Seashore, S.E. Predicting organizational effectiveness with a four-factor theory of leadership. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 1966, *11* (2), 238-263.

This study provides the theoretical basis and initial empirical analyses supporting the Four-Factor theory of leadership. Included is a comprehensive review of the leadership literature prior to 1966. [See also Taylor, J.C. An empirical evaluation of a four-factor theory of leadership using smallest space analysis]

Campbell, J.P., Dunnette, M.D., Lawler, E.E., & Weik, K.E. *Managerial behavior, performance and effectiveness.* New York: McGraw-Hill, 1970.

A good basic reference for issues concerning managerial performance.

Cartwright, D. & Zander, A. *Group dynamics: Research and theory.* New York: Harper & Row, 1968.

This book of readings covers the field of group dynamics quite extensively. Among the major areas covered are: (1) conformity, (2) power and influence, (3) leadership, and (4) motivation.

Drexler, J.A. *The human resource management survey: An item analysis.* Report to the Office of Naval Research, 1974.

A basic empirical analysis of the Navy Human Resource Management Survey. The author describes both theoretical and empirical rationale for the composition of this instrument and suggests refinements.

Franklin, J.L. *A path analytic approach to describing causal relationships among social-psychological factors in multi-level organizations.* Report to the Office of Naval Research, 1973.

This report provides an analyses of causal relationships among four key social-psychological aspects of organizational functioning. These relationships are examined both within and across time, and within and across levels of hierarchy. There is a very close parallel between the factors described in this report and those emerging from the Navy survey. [See also Franklin, J.L. Hierarchical differences in Navy functioning]

Franklin, J.L. *Hierarchical differences in Navy functioning.* Report to the Office of Naval Research, 1974.

This represents a diagnostic evaluation of the Navy along hierarchical (defined in terms of rate/rank) lines. Additional analyses examine: (1) the effects of age and rate/rank on levels of reported functioning, and (2) the relationships among major social-psychological factors in Navy units. [See also Bowers, D.G. & Franklin, J.L. The Navy as a functioning organization: A diagnosis]

French, J.R.P. & Raven, B. The bases of social power in D. Cartwright and A. Zander (eds.), *Group dynamics: Research and theory.* New York: Harper & Row, 1968.

The notion of five bases of social power is described in detail. This is a classic article basic for understanding influence processes in organizations.

Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., & Synderman, B. *The motivation to work.* New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1959.

Kahn, R.L., Wolfe, S.M., Quinn, R.P., Snoek, J.D., Rosenthal, R.A. *Organizational stress: Studies in role conflict and ambiguity.* New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1964.

Katz, D. & Kahn, R.L. *The social psychology of organizations.* New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1966.

Probably the best basic book on organizational theory available. The authors cover many key topics but the chapters on leadership, roles, communication, power and authority, and decision-making are particularly good and relevant to areas measured by the Navy Human Resource Management Survey.

Lawler, E.E. *Motivation in work organizations.* Monterrey, California: Brooks/Cole Publishing Co., 1973.

An excellent short book on motivation. Lawler covers several approaches to motivation and integrates theory and empirical evidence into a concise presentation.

Likert, R. *New patterns of management.* New York: McGraw-Hill, 1961.

This volume together with Likert's 1967 book present much of the organizational theory forming the basis for the Navy Human Resource Management Survey. In these two volumes Likert integrates a great deal of social science research and thought into a basic theory of organizational functioning. Special emphasis is placed on the influence of management on overall functioning.

Likert, R. *The human organization.* New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967

Maslow, A.H. *Motivation and personality.* New York: Harper and Bros., 1954.

Maslow's basic theory of motivation including his postulated hierarchy of needs is described in this volume.

Pecorella, P.A., Hausser, D.L., & Wissler, A.L. *Survey-Guided development: A Consultant Manual for Human Resource Management Specialt* Report to the Office of Naval Research, 1974.

This manual provides guidance for the use of survey data in organizational development. It is prepared for use by Navy HRM specialists. Included are major sections covering: (1) theory and measurement in Survey-Guided Development, (2) the use of a standardized survey, (3) activities at the work group level, (4) feedback meetings, (5) activities at the systemic level, (6) the identification and solution of problems, and (7) consultant interventions.

Scott, W.E. & Cummings, L.L. *Readings in organizational behavior and human performance*. Homewood, Ill.: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1973.

This volume includes an outstanding collection of readings reprinted from other sources. The pieces are arranged under five major headings some of which include major subsections. The five headings are: (1) theoretical and empirical foundations of organizational behavior and human performance, (2) dependent variables in organizational behavior and human performance, (3) structural and environmental determinants of behavior in organizations, (4) interpersonal processes as determinants of behavior in organizations, and (5) behavioral direction and change strategies.

Tannenbaum, A.S. *Social psychology of the work organization.* Belmont, California: Wasdworth, 1966.

Taylor, J.C. An empirical evaluation of a four-factor theory of leadership using smallest space analysis. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 1971, *6*, 249-266.

Taylor, J.C. & Bowers, D.G. *Survey of organizations: A machine-scored standardized questionnaire instrument.* Ann Arbor, Michigan: Institute for Social Research, 1972.

APPENDIX A

ITEMS AND INDICES MEASURING COMMAND CLIMATE, LEADERSHIP, WORK GROUP PROCESSES, AND SATISFACTION

I. Command Climate

Human Resources Emphasis

10. To what extent does this command have a real interest in the welfare and morale of assigned personnel?

11. To what extent are work activities reasonably organized in this command?

12. This command has clear-cut reasonable goals and objectives that contribute to its mission.

13. I feel that the workload and time factors are adequately considered in planning our work group assignments.

Motivational Conditions

7. To what extent do you feel motivated to contribute your best efforts to the command's mission and tasks?

8. Do you regard your duties in this command as helping your career?

9. Work group members who contribute the most are rewarded the most.

Decision-Making Practices

4. Decisions are made in this command at those levels where the most adequate and accurate information is available.

5. Information is widely shared in this command so that those who make decisions have access to all available know-how.

6. When decisions are being made, to what extent are the people affected asked for their ideas?

Communication Flow

1. Is the amount of information you get about what is going on in other departments or watch sections adequate to meet your needs?

2. To what extent are you told what you need to know to do your job in the best possible way?

3. How receptive are those above you to your ideas and suggestions?

II. Supervisory Leadership

Support

16. How friendly and easy to approach is your supervisor?

17. When you talk with your supervisor, to what extent does he pay attention to what you are saying?

18. To what extent is your supervisor willing to listen to your problems?

19. My supervisor makes it easy to tell him when things are not going as well as he expects.

Teamwork

20. To what extent does your supervisor encourage the people who work for him to work as a team?

21. To what extent does your supervisor encourage the people who work for him to exchange opinions and ideas?

Work Facilitation

24. To what extent does your supervisor help you to improve your performance?

25. To what extent does your supervisor provide you with the help you need so you can schedule work ahead of time?

26. To what extent does your supervisor offer new ideas for solving job related problems?

Goal Emphasis

22. To what extent does your supervisor encourage people to give their best effort?

23. To what extent does your supervisor maintain high personal standards of performance?

III. Peer Leadership

Support

27. How friendly and easy to approach are the members of your work group?

28. When you talk with the members in your work group, to what extent do they pay attention to what you are saying?

29. To what extent are the members in your work group willing to listen to your problems?

Teamwork

30. How much do members of your work group encourage each other to work as a team?

31. How much do members in your work group stress a team goal?

32. How much do people in your work group encourage each other to give their best effort?

33. To what extent do people in your work group maintain high standards of performance?

Work Facilitation

34. To what extent do members in your work group help you find ways to improve your performance?

35. To what extent do members of your work group provide the help you need so you can plan, organize and schedule work ahead of time?

Peer Problem Solving

36. To what extent do members of your work group offer each other new ideas for solving job related problems?

37. Members of my work group take the responsibility for resolving disagreements and working out acceptable solutions.

38. To what extent do people in your work group exchange opinions and ideas

IV. Work Group Processes

Work Group Coordination

39. To what extent does your work group plan together and coordinate its efforts?

40. To what extent do you have confidence and trust in the members of your work group?

41. To what extent is information about important events widely exchanged within your work group?

42. To what extent does your work group make good decisions and solve problems well?

Work Group Readiness

43. To what extent has your work group been adequately trained to handle emergency situations?

44. My work group performs well under pressure or in emergency situations.

45. My work group can meet day-to-day mission requirements well.

Work Group Discipline

46. The members of my work group reflect Navy standards of military courtesy, appearance, and grooming.

47. I feel that Navy standards of order and discipline are maintained within my work group.

V. Satisfaction

48. All in all, how satisfied are you with the people in your work group?

49. All in all, how satisfied are you with your supervisor?

50. All in all, how satisfied are you with your job?

51. All in all, how satisfied are you with this command, compared to most others?

52. All in all, how satisfied do you feel with the progress you have made in the Navy, up to now?

53. How satisfied do you feel with your chance for getting ahead in the Navy in the future?

54. Does your assigned work give you pride and feelings of self-worth?

APPENDIX B

ITEMS AND INDICES MEASURING
INTEGRATION OF PERSONNEL AND MISSION,
TRAINING, EQUAL OPPORTUNITY/RACE RELATIONS,
DRUG ABUSE, ALCOHOLISM PREVENTION, AND COMMUNITY INTERRELATIONSHIPS

I. Integration of Personnel and Mission

The command is seen as effective in getting people to meet the command's objectives as well as meeting individual needs.

55. To what extent is your command effective in getting you to meet its needs and contribute to its effectiveness?

56. To what extent does your command do a good job of meeting your needs as an individual?

II. Training

Individuals have been trained in their assigned tasks. The development of technical and leadership skills and other facets of professional advancement are encouraged.

57. I have been adequately trained to perform my assigned tasks.

58. To what extent has this command trained you to accept increased leadership?

59. To what extent has this command trained you to accept increased technical responsibility?

III. General

The following questions provide useful data in and of themselves; however, they do not statistically group with other questions in the Navy Human Resource Management Survey.

60. Our supervisor gives our work group credit for good work.

61. To what extent does your supervisor attempt to work out conflicts within your work group?

62. People at higher levels of the command are aware of the problems at my level.

IV. Equal Opportunity

The command ensures equal opportunity for all personnel in such areas as job assignment, advancement, education, rewards and punishments. There is an openness and willingness to address racial issues within the command. (It should be understood that in addition to these questions, other dimensions, such as command climate, indicate the command's ability to effectively manage in order to achieve equal opportunity.)

63. In my chain of command there is a willingness to talk about racial issues.

64. To what extent does this command ensure that you have equal opportunity for advancement in rate/rank?

65. To what extent does this command ensure that you have equal opportunity for job assignment?

66. To what extent does this command ensure that you have equal opportunity for housing?

67. To what extent does this command ensure that you have equal opportunity for education and training?

68. To what extent does this command ensure that you receive a fair and objective performance evaluation?

69. To what extent does this command ensure that you have equal opportunity for recreation?

70. To what extent is military justice administered fairly throughout this command?

71. In my chain of command there is a willingness to talk about sex discrimination issues.

72. In this command work assignments are fairly made.

73. People in this command discourage favoritism.

V. Drug Abuse

Personnel in the command have the ability and willingness to recognize and respond appropriately to drug abuse problems.

74. To what extent do you understand the reasons contributing to the abuse of drugs?

75. To what extent do members of your work group discourage drug abuse?

76. My supervisor can be depended upon to respond helpfully and appropriately to personnel with drug problems.

VI. Alcoholism Prevention

Personnel in the command and supervisors have the ability and willingness to recognize and respond to alcohol problems in an effective and candid manner.

77. To what extent would you feel free to talk to your supervisor about an alcohol problem in your work group?

78. To what extent does this command promote attitudes of responsibility towards the use of alcoholic beverages?

79. To what extent do members of your work group discourage the abuse of alcoholic beverages?

80. To what extent does this command provide alternatives to the use of alcohol at command functions?

81. To what extent would your work group accept and support a recovered alcoholic?

VII. Community Interrelationships

Personnel are conscious and concerned with the image they project as representatives of the Navy in all locations, and of the United States when overseas. Personnel have been given sufficient training to be able to integrate into the local community and expect to be dealt with fairly in economic transactions. Work group members look forward to visiting foreign countries.

82. Do members of your work group care about the image they project when ashore in this area?

83. Do you consider the effect of your behavior on how people of this area view Navy personnel?

84. To what extent do you expect to be fairly dealt with while spending money in this area?

85. To what extent do you feel you have sufficient understanding of the people and customs of this area to get along in this community.

86. To what extent has information been provided to assist you and/or your family to adjust to living in this area?

87. Do you have a good understanding of your personal role as a representative of the U.S. when overseas?

88. Do members of your work group look forward to visiting foreign countries?